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The following papers on essential issues in foreign language instruction are included: (1) "Futurism, Basic Education, and the Foreign Language Curriculum," by Frank M. Grittner; (2) "The Foreign Language Teacher as 'Con Artist,'" by Jean S. Hughes; (3) "Motivational Factors and Student Retention in School Foreign Language Programs," by Pamela J. Myers; (4) "Suggestive-Accelerative Learning and Teaching in Foreign Languages," by Kay U. Herr; (5) "Screening Students for Intensive Courses: A Survey of Past and Current Practice, with Suggestions for New Programs," by W. Lee Nahrgang; (6) "Foreign Languages for Gifted Learners," by Laura Brimm and others; (7) "Foreign Languages and the Total Curriculum: Exploring Alternative Basics," by Gale Crouse and others; (8) "Utilizing Class Time in Foreign Language Instruction," by Anne Nerenz; (9) "A Realistic Look at the Function of Grammar in the Foreign Language Classroom," by Laura K. Heilenman; (10) "Teaching Basic Reading Comprehension Skills," by M. Jane Greenewald; (11) "Pictures and Reading Comprehension: Some Research Results," by Alice C. Omaggio; and (12) "Translation: A Step Forward or Back?" by Fritz H. Konig and Nile D. Vernon. (JB)

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Report of Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages

Teaching the Basics in the Foreign Language Classroom: Options and Strategies

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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Teaching the Basics in the Foreign Language Classroom:
Options and Strategies

Selected Papers from the 1979
Central States Conference

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Preface

It seems appropriate as we approach a new decade in education and in foreign language teaching to pause for a moment to consider "Foreign Language Instruction in the 1980s: Alternatives, Basics, and Competencies."

What are the alternatives in foreign language teaching? Options for choice are many and varied. There are intensive language programs, specialized language courses for business and journalism, bilingual education programs, career education programs, courses on exploring languages, and those which combine foreign languages with other academic disciplines. Materials and methods are highly varied. Methodology includes a counseling-learning method, a learning styles approach, methods of personalizing and individualizing instruction, the suggestive-accelerative learning and teaching method, various psychological approaches to teaching, computer-assisted learning, and travel-study programs. We have developed foreign language programs for preschoolers, elementary school children, junior and high school pupils, the gifted, college students, and adults. Teaching and learning aids include audiovisual materials, basic texts, games, cultural materials of all types, music, puzzles, skits, and pronunciation aids.

What are the basics in foreign language instruction? This question is raised by the current back-to-basics movement in education. How do foreign languages fit into programs that emphasize narrowly defined "basics"? What are basic courses? What are basic course materials? How does foreign language instruction cope with an increased emphasis on basic skills and competency, and at the same time attract sufficient students to be economically feasible? Many foreign language educators hope that the recently appointed Presidential Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies will restate and publicize the importance of foreign language study in America today.

What are the necessary competencies in foreign language teaching and learning? Thirty-eight states have already adopted some form of competency tests. Is communicative competence in the target language the goal of foreign language instruction? Are the skill areas of

listening, speaking, reading, and writing the basic competencies in foreign languages? How is competency-based learning applicable to foreign languages?

As foreign language instruction moves into the next decade, the profession must find answers to these questions. This volume and the conference program it represents are dedicated to approaching answers to some of these questions. The alternatives have been developed in terms of programs, courses, methods, materials, and audiences. The challenge of the 1980s is to use the available alternatives to provide basic, as well as interesting and stimulating, foreign language instruction that will produce students who possess the competencies in foreign languages which they need to be productive, informed, and creative citizens.

Dianne Schobel
1979 Program Chairperson

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Introduction

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To no one's great surprise, dictionaries commonly define the adjective "basic" as "fundamental" or "essential." All three terms are relatively clear. Not so, however, the corresponding nominal form found in the phrase "back-to-basics," which is at once ambiguous and contains an inherently Romantic element—a yearning for the beauty of supposed simplicity and, by implication, a rejection of current reality and an advocacy of a new one in its stead.

Nearly everyone has some sort of notion about the meaning of the phrase. Indeed, depending only on the perspective of the person contemplating it, "back-to-basics" seems to have as many definitions as it does proponents. In the mind of the average taxpayer, for example, it doubtless calls forth a desire for fewer subjects to be taught and for correspondingly reduced amounts of tax dollars to be pumped into an educational structure that has become terribly complex and very nearly incomprehensible. Traditional educators, reflecting the perceived public demand, regard the term as a trumpet call for the simplification of the curriculum, renewed stress on the so-called three R's, and elimination of the frills, or nonessentials, from the educational process. An environmentalist would interpret "back-to-basics" as emphasizing Americans' need to appreciate and stop destroying the beauty of the natural world so that it is available for future generations as it was for those who preceded us on the planet.

One feels reasonably safe in asserting that the pedagogical and curricular implications of the "back-to-basics" movement are not yet

clear to foreign language educators. Some see (and not without justification) in the term an inherent danger that the profession will metamorphose into some type of raging, word-spitting demon which will attempt unthinkingly to teach the students of tomorrow with the methods and the curriculum of yesterday—and fall thereby ever deeper into the abyss of the forgotten relics of the educational process.[1]

Others regard "back-to-basics" as an opportunity to move away from the innovative (and, at times, somewhat suspect) approaches to teaching foreign languages which have dominated our publications and professional meetings since the beginning of the *Great Decline* of the past decade. Stated differently, these educators see a chance to shift the focus of foreign language teaching methods from the periphery of the discipline back to the humanistic nature of the subject matter itself.[2] As Schulz (1978, p. 648) points out, we have "individualized, humanized, personalized, mediated, programmed, team-taught, grouped, 'interdisciplinized,' clarified values, fostered creativity, developed mini-courses, and discussed old and new methodologies *ad infinitum*."

No matter how the various segments of the profession interpret the term, nearly all regard "back-to-basics" as a major opportunity to restore the study of foreign languages to a central position in the curriculum of schools and universities. Invariably, the more insightful among us refer to a move *forward*-to-basics, and hope "that the profession will unify to meet the back-to-basics thrust with a strong, reorganized, relevant program, based not on what has gone past, but on what will answer future needs of the students who today are in school."[3]

The essays presented in *Teaching the Basics in the Foreign Language Classroom: Options and Strategies* are a representative sampling of papers and workshops given at the 1979 Central States Conference. Linked by the conference theme itself, "Foreign Language Instruction in the 1980s: Alternatives, Basics, Competencies," all address in some manner the "basics" as perceived by the editors of this book; namely, selected fundamental aspects of teaching and learning foreign languages today. While by no means a definition, this concept includes options and strategies pertaining to curriculum, teaching methods, learning styles, the profession itself, and a search for significant meaning in what we do.

Frank Grittner argues convincingly in the first chapter that our present curriculum and methods do not contribute to the well-being of those students "who will spend most of their lives in the next century." He contends that the meaning of basics will be found in "improved literacy in all the verbal skills, improved understanding of the sciences, arts, mathematics, and social studies areas. . . ."

The combination of imagination, energy, and a teacher's desire for students to comprehend provides a clear key to imparting foreign language skills in Jean Hughes' classroom. Her humorous contribution describes a simulated experience designed to motivate students to master basic elements of vocabulary, structure, pronunciation, and grammar.

Motivational factors are also at the core of the chapters by Pamela Myers and Kay U. Herr. The former presents concrete evidence that well-taught elementary classes will do much to end the attrition rate so often lamented by foreign language teachers; the latter provides insights into a totally positive approach to teaching (especially) vocabulary, one which reportedly enables students to master and retain vast quantities of new words within a brief period of time.

Both time and motivation play major roles in W. Lee Nahrgang's essay. He favors utilizing intensive courses to impart a fundamental knowledge of a foreign language to beginning students and advocates the effective use of screening procedures to discourage those who are perceived to have a low aptitude for language learning.

In Chapter 6, Laura Brimm, Diane Bueber, Renee Chi, and Kathy Strong describe a strategy for providing basic foreign language instruction to exceptional students. Their course seeks to develop speaking, reading, and writing skills in those students often ignored by the educational process.

Expansion of the horizons of foreign language teachers and their colleagues in other disciplines and of the nature of the curriculum itself is at the heart of the chapter by Gale Crouse, Krin Gabbard, Leanne Wierenga, and D. L. Schrader. They indicate logical connections and grounds for integration of foreign language studies with business, music, film, and interdisciplinary learning in general.

Anne Nerenz reminds us that foreign language teachers should not wonder too much why many of their students do not master a

basic skill; that is, cannot speak the target language. A possible ground, Nerenz asserts, lies in the results advanced by her research: to the detriment of the students, teachers themselves tend to spend too much class time talking, and in *English* at that! In her own words, "teachers . . . spend more time practicing [fundamental language skills] than do students."

While Nerenz points out that teachers evidently regard grammar as the most important aspect of language learning, Laura Heilenman also laments such an emphasis. Mastery of grammar leads to initial success, she notes, but it does not teach students to *use* the language studied any more than learning *about* cooking makes one a master chef.

Both M. Jane Greenewald and Alice Omaggio are concerned with enhancing the development of students' reading skills in the target language. While Greenewald argues that reading must be taught actively in the foreign language classroom, Omaggio reports results of her research on the impact of visuals on comprehension.

The final chapter of the book stresses, appropriately enough, the values of written translation for *intermediate* students. The authors, Fritz König and Nile Vernon, report on a course developed at the University of Northern Iowa. In the process they note that practice in written translation reinforces the reading skill and provides training in sensitivity, style, meaning, and recognizing aspects of the target culture which might otherwise be overlooked.

"The thrust of education," June Phillips wrote recently, "must look to the future, and . . . recognize second language acquisition as a bridge to individual growth and international cooperation."[4] In their own way, all essays contained in this book are dedicated to the acceptance and implementation of precisely those points.

Notes

1. For an excellent discussion of this particular attitude, see Albert Valdman, "Toward Redefinition of the Basics in Foreign Language Teaching," *Teaching for Tomorrow in the Foreign Language Classroom*, ed. Reid E. Baker, (Skokie, Ill.: National Textbook Co., 1978), pp. 1–7; see also the chapter by Frank Grittner in the present volume.
2. See Renate A. Schulz, "Back to the Basics in the Foreign Language Classroom?" *Foreign Language Annals*, 11 (1978), pp. 647–55.
3. Beverly M. Enwall, "Responding to Today's Issues," *The Language Connection: From the Classroom to the World*, ed. June K. Phillips. ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series, 9 (Skokie, Ill.: National Textbook Co., 1977), p. 145.
4. *The Language Connection*, p. 4.

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Futurism, Basic Education, and the Foreign Language Curriculum[1]

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The term "futurism" as I use it here relates to attempts within education to establish a new discipline—a new way of coping with accelerating change and with the so-called "knowledge explosion." My intent is to use certain aspects of the futurist movement as a framework for examining some of the problems facing the language teaching profession and to suggest ways of applying futurist thinking to the eventual solution of those problems. In this chapter I hope to shed some light on: (1) what futurism is; (2) what its applications are to the development of foreign language curricula; and (3) some ways in which this relates to basic education in America.

Obviously, a topic this broad necessitates omissions and oversimplifications. So, I hope the reader will bear with me on the items I have chosen to highlight.

Let me begin the definition of futurism with the suggestion that some form of future view is necessary in any modern civilization; as Nietzsche said, "the future lays down the law today." Where education is concerned, the collective futuristic perceptions of the people within a culture tend to shape the direction of education for young people. Thus, for example, the belief in universal literacy is written into the educational laws of all the fifty states. Yet, if we push back the centuries we find that the European ancestors of today's literacy advocates had a vastly different image of future educational needs. Literacy was seen as irrelevant future mental equipment to all but a few scribes,

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upper echelon priests, and certain selected members of the nobility. In fact, even subliterate apprenticeship training was lacking for most people.

As conditions changed in society, however, a different perception of the future emerged. And society's future view of children was gradually transformed from the idea that only a few would have the *privilege* to read into a new reality that stated that all children had not only the *right* but also the *duty* and *responsibility* to read. Through a very complex process and for very pragmatic reasons, in nation after nation, the people who controlled the power structure saw to it that reading and other "basic" subjects were mandated by law. Since World War II, most of the developed nations of the world have added a foreign language to their list of mandated subjects. That is, the future perception for children in those countries is that they will grow to adulthood with some knowledge of a language other than the mother tongue. Unfortunately, as we all know, that is *not* the situation in the United States. Also unfortunate is the past inability of the foreign language profession to deal effectively with the problem.

That brings us to an extremely important concept with regard to how we view the future. There is, I am afraid, a strong current of defeatism in the profession. This is related to the question of what futurism is and what it is not. For one thing, it is not prophecy. The belief in prophecy implies that every small detail of the future is preordained. The prophet is one who somehow has access to information in advance of the event. Another kind of prophet is the pseudohistorian who sees history as necessarily repeating itself. Such reasoning, for example, is reflected in the idea that since foreign languages have had up-and-down cycles in the past, one assumes that the cycles will repeat themselves inexorably into the future. A third view holds that the future is totally random, mindless, and beyond human control. As Thomas Hardy expressed it in a poem: "How arrives it joy lies slain,/ And why unblooms the best hope ever sown?/—Crass Casualty obstructs the sun and rain/And dicing time for gladness casts a moan./ . . ./These purblind Doomsters had as readily strown/Blisses about my pilgrimage as pain." With any of these views either idiot chance, an omnipotent force, or a recurrent historical cycle is operating and a leadership role thus becomes meaningless.

In the late 1950s and in the early 1960s, foreign languages received a number of potential futuristic boosts. First, President Eisenhower's National Defense Education Act saw foreign languages as necessary tools for those future American citizens who would be contending with hostile forces across the world. John Kennedy's "new frontier" then accepted foreign language learning as a necessary part of building a better future world through international leadership activities (the Peace Corps). The early years of Lyndon Johnson encompassed all of these and added a futuristic picture of a "great society" which would pull together all the multilingual, multiethnic groups in America into one large diverse family. And then came Viet Nam. Some of the best minds from our best schools and universities were increasingly diverted to what was called a "war of attrition"—which meant body counts as proof of success. And this led to search and destroy missions in the jungles with teenagers in uniform bringing back bags full of severed ears to validate their success; accountability with a vengeance. Then we had riots across the country and in Chicago during the Democrat Convention. Those upheavals led to the political demise of Hubert Humphrey, who narrowly lost the election of 1968 to Richard Nixon. After that came Watergate and the eventual resignation of the president.

Somewhere in that whole sequence of events many students in foreign language classes at all levels stopped responding to the exhortation to "shut up and keep reciting the dialogues and pattern skills." Indeed, in increasing numbers those students even stopped showing up to hear the exhortation. So, the language profession found itself, twenty years after Sputnik, with half as many students as had been enrolled in 1968. At least in part, this attrition was due to young people's loss of a positive future image of themselves. As one popular song put it: "Yesterday is dead and gone,/and tomorrow's out of sight./ I don't want to be alone,/Help me make it through the night." And another stanza echoed: "I don't care what's right or wrong,/I don't want to understand,/Let the devil take tomorrow,/cause tonight I need a friend." The basic attitudes here are nihilism, nowism, and anti-intellectualism. The more often students internalize and accept attitudes of this kind, the less possible any serious education becomes. For, with no positive image of the future, one has nowhere to go.

What about the teachers of such students? According to psychologists, a new malady, similar to what was called "shell shock" in World War I and "battle fatigue" in World War II, has set in among many American teachers. It seems that students' behavior begins to affect that of teachers. Before long the teacher's theme song is something like this: "I don't care what's good or bad,/I don't care what parents say,/let the devil take the basics,/help me make it through the day." This situation soon becomes a vicious circle. For as teachers and other people who are operating education diminish *their* image of the future, they communicate their attitude to the students, who then tend to become even more demoralized. And so we end up with our own kind of pedagogical Viet Nam. The same dehumanized, technological procedures that failed in Viet Nam provide no better results in education. To be sure, the accountability measures of educational administrators are different. Instead of counting bodies or fragments of bodies, their emphasis is upon accountability in terms of those fragmentary measures of fossilized performance known as standardized tests. Sometimes the results are even ludicrous. One state now has a law which requires that, in order to graduate from the *twelfth* grade, students have to prove that they can perform at the *ninth*-grade level. What amazes me is the number of people who see nothing wrong with this. The basic problem with this kind of popular educational management system is that it is oriented to the *past* behaviors of students rather than toward some *future* ideal. So called "needs assessments" are often nothing more than a tabulation of ill-informed opinion defining some mediocre standard of *past* behavior. To wit: "To be considered a twelfth grader you have to prove that you are a ninth grader." The flaw here is that it is improper to generate value judgments from statistical data.

To illustrate the point, suppose we took the empirical approach to the nutritional needs of children. This might involve taking a random sampling of parents and students to determine what they like to eat. We might come up with a list of such edibles as cake, cookies, steak, strawberries, and so forth. Would anyone be silly enough to call that a "nutritional needs assessment" and to establish a diet accordingly? Obviously not, simply because the culinary whims of people expressed in any kind of statistical sample are irrelevant to the nutritional needs of the human body. Hence, in a program such as the school lunch ef-

fort, we rely on expert opinion with respect to what the human body needs and we try to prepare the daily diet accordingly. In the case of education, the basic question is: "What are the educational needs of citizens who will be spending the majority of their lives in the twenty-first century?" Given the direction of the world toward international economic interdependence, it is difficult to see how informed educational opinion could omit foreign languages from the basic educational diet of future students.

So, an important element of the futurist movement is not to accept either a backward-oriented or a deterministic view of what is to come, but rather to project toward alternative ideal future conditions. Over a half-century ago, John Dewey advocated this approach when he said, "What the best and wisest parents want for their own children, that must be the community want for *all* its children." And two hundred years ago the German philosopher Immanuel Kant saw the inherent absurdity of basing education on current or past data. In his words:

> . . . children ought to be educated, not for the present, but for a possibly improved condition of man in the future; that is, in a manner which is adapted to the idea of humanity and the whole destiny of man. This principle is of great importance. Parents usually educate their children merely in such a manner that, however bad the world may be, they may adapt themselves to its present conditions. But they ought to give them an education so much better than this, that a better condition of things may thereby be brought about in the future.[2]

Clearly, Kant anticipated the futurist concept that education itself must anticipate the future and thereby improve it. Or, as Joel Parker said: "We must make preferably possible futures probable." To do so, however, we will first have to overcome certain professional attitudinal problems. According to the futurists, we have long since passed the point where minor adaptations of past basic educational practices will serve for students who must function in the future. Alvin Toffler points out that we are now in the "super-industrial era," an age in which the future is rushing upon us like a "roaring current of change, a current so powerful today that it overturns institutions, shifts our values, and shrivels our roots."[3]

Much of the alienation of students and teachers relates to the problem of "overchoice." As one futurist expressed it, "there is so much that *could* be taught that it is almost impossible to decide what *should* be taught."[4] In fact, one of the most common complaints from foreign language teachers is that their textbooks are overcrowded with material. In addition, teachers have been asked to deal with the ethnic heritage, the bicentennial, the target culture, career education, and to personalize, individualize and behavioralize their objectives. In view of all this, how does the teacher choose what to add, what to delete, what to study in depth, or what to treat superficially? There are several approaches, which I will deal with shortly, to solving this problem. First, however, let me say a few words about certain nonhumanistic futurists who advocate a technology of human manipulation which they frankly refer to as "human engineering." The leading proponent of this view is B. F. Skinner who, in *Beyond Freedom and Dignity* (New York: Knopf, 1971), comes out flatly in favor of the deliberate manipulation of people so that they will meet predetermined behavioral specifications.

In his behaviorist utopian novel, *Walden II*, Skinner claims that, in the future, education will have to "abandon the technical limitations which it has imposed upon itself and step forth into a broader sphere of human engineering." (It is both significant and ominous to me that school administrators tend toward this Skinnerian view.) I say it, because in his famous book, *1984*, George Orwell agreed with Skinner's view of the future that included a world controlled and manipulated by the process of human engineering. However, unlike Skinner, Orwell views the inevitable outcome of human engineering as a total dehumanization of everyone by an amoral, power-hungry group of controlling bureaucrats (symbolized by "big brother"). And big brother's behavioral objectives are strictly enforced by an all powerful central party. As one Orwellian controller expressed it, "If you want a picture of the future, imagine a boot stamping on a human face—forever."

How does all this relate to the teaching of languages? The answer has to do with the Orwellian futuristic view in which language is one of the chief human behaviors to be manipulated. In Orwell's *1984*, "Newspeak" is the official process whereby words will mean only what the controller wishes them to mean at any given time. In this regard,

a British journalist writing in the *London Observer* viewed the language of the Watergate hearings as being a giant step in the direction of Orwellian "Newspeak." That journalist coined the word "waterspeak" to refer to the way in which Watergate team members were willing to depersonalize themselves and their actions. The rhetoric of the Watergate hearings was full of mechanical metaphors such as "input," "output," and "zero defect system."

Unethical, immoral, and criminal behaviors were also converted to euphemistic rhetoric: a *bribe* became "a payment with increments in the form of currency"; *burglary* was described as "surreptitious entry"; an *outright lie* came out as "my statement is inoperative." The British journalist concluded his article by suggesting that "Waterspeak seems to indicate how men in power can become conditioned by language to regard themselves as part of a machine in which individualism is, to borrow a word, inoperative."[5]

As I see it, all of this has a great deal to do with foreign language education and its role in the future. The signs of technological dehumanization are everywhere; the evidence is abundant and obvious. However, what should be equally obvious to teachers of humanistic subject matter is that second language learning offers one of the strongest walls of resistance against the kinds of linguistic manipulations which are described in the dystopian novels. The study of language—a symbolic system which refers to a culture other than one's own—is, I believe, the best way to become attuned to the relationship between symbol and meaning in the native language, and thus to perceive more clearly than would otherwise be possible the purposes of those who use language deceptively. Strong evidence points to positive transfer from second language learning to many other areas. For example, the evidence suggests that second language learners do better in all college academic areas compared to students with no language in their background, that they are more creative in a wide range of areas, that they are more employable in nonlanguage jobs, and that they are more precise than their peers in their use of English. So, we can easily relate languages to the recurrent "back-to-basics" movements.

The term "basics" needs some clarification here. Surely, we are talking about results in terms of human performance rather than educational process or content. No one talks about "back-to-basic farming"

with the intent of going back to scratching the ground with a stick and throwing in seeds by hand. And no one suggests that business should eliminate the computer and return to the handwritten ledgers of Ebeneezer Scrooge, thereby calling for "back-to-basic business." Hopefully, "back-to-basic education" does not mean doubling or tripling doses of the same kind of reading, writing, and arithmetic exercises that have been demotivating to pupils in the past. If the term "basics" means anything at all, it must refer to such things as improved literacy in all the verbal skills, improved understanding of the sciences, arts, mathematics, and social studies areas and improved ability of people to function through mastery of those intellectual abilities that life in the future will require. In short, the outcomes are important irrespective of the methods or subject matter through which they are achieved. In this regard, evidence strongly suggests that foreign language study or bilingual education *can* contribute markedly to the better functioning of the individual in a society where heavy emphasis lies on effective oral and written communication. In this area, the positive effects of foreign language study are unequivocal.

Even a study conducted by the National Association of Secondary School Principals supports the idea that languages and other academic subjects contribute to improved educational achievement. Concerning SAT scores, the NASSP study notes: "Considerable evidence exists that SAT examinees from schools with steady or rising scores take more academic courses—in mathematics, foreign languages, English and physical science—than do examinees in the schools with severe decreases in SAT scores. . . . The 34 schools selected for the study are scattered throughout the country, and were in both affluent and blue collar communities. They ranged in size from fewer than 700 students to more than 2,000."[6] This evidence suggests that what is needed to improve the basics is elitism of *content* with democratization of the student body.

However, I must admit that I feel a bit uneasy about this kind of data as the *only* justification for the teaching of foreign languages. It's true; language study *does* help improve English skills. But if we stop there, we are—in effect—saying that foreign language study is a kind of medicine to treat ailing English departments. That is, we become part of a clinical education model which assumes that students are

some way "sick" and need to be remediated. English improvement should be a by-product, not a goal, of the foreign language program. If we allow it to become a goal, it will inevitably distort the discipline. However, the clinical model has the advantage at least of assuming that students are human beings and is, therefore, superior to the Skinnerian accountability model which implies that students are some kind of inhuman raw material to be processed according to behavioral specifications.

All of this raises the question of how we go about getting a better model for education, one that is more nearly like the model for optimum human diet which I mentioned earlier. In this regard it seems clear to me that we must reject the opinion-pollster mentality simply because it is backward oriented. And, just as *we* would take the best available body of informed opinion on the dietary needs of school children, so we should also look for the best informed psychological opinion that directs us toward *optimum* human development. In this regard, I favor the humanistic psychologists such as Abraham Maslow. Maslow has identified five types of human needs.[7] I have summarized them in priority order as follows:

1. *PHYSIOLOGICAL NEED*—includes everything that is required just to stay alive (food, clothing, shelter and rest).
2. *NEED FOR SAFETY*—when individuals have moved beyond mere survival needs, they then try to stabilize their environment, to make it secure for the future, to get a feeling of ability to protect what they have. Until people have passed this need level, it is difficult to get them interested in anything else.
3. *SOCIAL NEED*—once safety and survival are assured, people next seek something larger than themselves; they want to belong, to share, to give and receive friendship and love. This third level transcends the popular rhetoric of certain books and songs which tell us how to be "creatively selfish" and "to take care of number one." That kind of thinking reflects the lower need levels of survival and safety.
4. *THE EGO'S NEED*—even after people feel accepted socially, they still want to feel good about themselves, to be self-confident, independent, and respected by peers.

5. *NEED FOR SELF-FULFILLMENT*—people can be healthy, safe, socially useful, and self-assured and still feel a strong lack. In effect, there is a need even beyond ego satisfaction that Maslow calls the need for self-actualization. When all of the more basic needs are satisfied, people still have a compelling, deeply intuitive desire to move toward realizing their full potential as human beings. That "something better" is what many poor parents want for their children because it was denied to them when they were in school. Hardly anyone expresses it in terms of "self-actualization," of course, but that does not change the fact that the need exists.

My reason for introducing this material here is my strong belief that second language learning, properly structured, *can* and *does* contribute to the satisfaction of Maslow's top three need categories. It seems obvious to me that students who engage in even a limited degree of cross-cultural communication in a second language have taken a giant step in certain areas of social development. And ego-building is experienced by many students at the point when they suddenly realize that they have learned to communicate even simple ideas and feelings by means of a second language. This phenomenon has surely been observed by every foreign language teacher. (Our failure lies in not communicating it to others.) As for self-actualization, the potential is certainly there; although, because it is a highly personal phenomenon, it is hard to document. However, about one thing I feel no doubt whatever: foreign language programs *can* help *all* American students to meet these higher level needs by equipping them with insights, attitudes, and learning sets which are not available through the study of any other subject matter. Moreover, I think this fact can be demonstrated with existing data.

In view of all this let us examine a few disconcerting facts with respect to the future of our discipline:

Fact one. As a profession, we are eliminating over three fourths of all American young people from any significant contact with a second language.

Fact two. A pupil vacuum is now moving through the grade schools; it estimates from 20 to 30 percent fewer students at the secondary and college levels in the next ten years. (We do not need a

mathematical futurist to tell us where the profession will be ten years hence if we and our accomplices in guidance, counseling, and administration persist in the kind of *de facto* elitism that places ever fewer students into foreign language programs.)

Fact three. All other developed nations of the world *require* their young people to have significant contact with a foreign language at some stage in the public school program. Only the United States—in violation of the international treaty called the "Helsinki Accords"—has reneged on its agreement to *increase* the amount of study of other languages and other cultures.

Fact four. American schools and colleges lack realistic expectations given the time allotments available to foreign language programs. I realize that this assertion is more a value judgment than a documentable fact. Yet, I know of many university people who pretend that students are reading literature with understanding and appreciation when those students have less than minimal control of the foreign language. Go to any campus bookstore and examine the used readers that students have sold back to the proprietor. And what will you find? English crib notes written over every third or fourth word. This is not reading. Appreciation is not possible under such conditions. Yet the charade continues on campus after campus. Meanwhile, enrollments continue to dwindle.

In both high schools and colleges another kind of fantasy is often being acted out. Some language teachers actually think they are covering the textbook. And, often *they* are. The problem is that the *students* are not. Most have dropped out mentally long before the last chapter. When will we learn that the process of racing through a vast amount of language material does not equate *either* with language proficiency *or* with the maintenance of intellectual standards? If anything, it leads to the opposite result; that is, it leads to what Howard Nostrand called "planned parrothood," the glib recitation, on cue, of memorized material neither to express a single meaningful thought nor to comprehend simple, spontaneous questions relating to family, friends, and surroundings. Our texts and our curricula are simply too full and leave time neither for creative application nor for humanistic appreciation. As a result, we are often left with the charade that mindless repetition equals fluency. In addition, we have teachers pretend-

ing that a level of fluency exists in their students which they themselves do not possess. I call this phenomenon the "perfection fantasy"—the tendency to pretend that novice students and non-native teachers use the language flawlessly. Ironically, this attitude inhibits the very kind of practice needed to improve language skills. The spontaneous use of language produces errors and hesitation, even in native speakers. Yet if teachers and beginning students must pretend to be perfect, who will dare to depart from the recitation of "safe," prelearned material? And who will dare to point out that many of our achievement standards—like the emperor's new clothes—do not really exist?

Well, enough about our *problems*. What about future *solutions*? In this regard, there are some positive signs such as the various national Task Forces administered by the Modern Language Association. I mention them here because we hope that these Task Forces can exert some influence on the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies. We hope also that their activity will eventually produce some funding aimed at reversing the current anti-foreign language trends in the country.

To conclude on a positive note, let me list a few suggestions concerning what can be done to produce a positive future direction for foreign language study in America—assuming we get the anticipated support and leadership.

Solution one. The profession should develop informational materials that reach school administrators, guidance counselors, parent groups, school board organizations, and others who control educational policies and who make fiscal decisions affecting foreign languages. These materials would emphasize the value of foreign languages to *all* students. The case can be made that language has the potential to develop linguistic insights, to improve language skills, to enhance understanding of our modern multilingual world society and to increase the employability of the individual. Therefore, in a democratic society these skills should be made available to *all* citizens through publicly financed education. However, the promotion of universal multilingualism is pointless if we continue the same curricular and instructional procedures that have been eliminating students from our programs by the tens of thousands. In fact, it would be false advertising to do so. Not only do we need new curricula; we also need

new approaches to the in-service and preservice education of teachers.

Solution two. In view of the above, the profession should develop and field-test model curricula that are designed to make foreign language study accessible to all students in a form which maintains the intellectual integrity of the discipline. These curricula must be structured and paced to accommodate students with wide-ranging intellectual and socioeconomic backgrounds. Moreover, these models would be designed with an eye toward the original meaning of the word "educate": "to call forth, draw out, evoke." Students would learn to master and apply *creatively* a more limited amount of material built around basic linguistic and cultural concepts instead of being run superficially through a vast and indigestible mass of language material. This is one way to cope with the "over choice" problems of the future.

Solution three. The profession needs to identify *preservice* teacher education programs that have achieved a reputation for excellence in preparing foreign language teachers and then use their personnel for improving instruction in existing local school programs. Funding priority should be given to those people and agencies which can provide evidence that substantial numbers of their graduates are performing well in junior and senior high schools under normal instructional conditions. From this process people would be selected to develop model *preservice* programs, which would then be field-tested and made available to other institutions as part of an expanding network of program improvement.

Solution four. The profession should identify in various states those individuals and agencies which currently provide *inservice* education to foreign language teachers and seek to strengthen and expand their efforts. Funding priority would be given to agencies that can reach the most people with the best programs at the least cost. In-service programs would be designed to solve specific local problems.

Solution five. The profession needs to develop evaluative techniques that are more realistic than those now available. Error analysis techniques could, for example, be exploited in a constructive manner to help students (and teachers) take an honest look at their progress in learning the new language. This technique, along with others, could then be used to help dissipate the "perfection fantasy" and replace it with a more realistic, relaxed, and humane approach to language ac-

quisition. Virtually all second language learners (even after decades of practice) still make certain phonological, morphological, or syntactical errors in somewhat predictable patterns. One pedagogical application of error analysis is to admit that errors are inevitable and that they must, therefore, be identified and corrected. This approach could also be applied to the inservice and preservice components mentioned above. Prospective and inservice teachers could be taught to diagnose their own patterns of error with an eye toward minimizing them. To do otherwise is to encourage a state of affairs in which fluency means nothing more than making errors at a faster rate of speed.

That is my brief listing of some necessary changes for the future. It would be easy to expand this list, if space permitted. Thus, the remarks above should be viewed as minimums. I cannot see how we can project a future that does not include such things as democratizing the program, improving and updating teacher education, and establishing more realistic goals and curricula. The problems mentioned earlier were created by human actions; they can be solved by the same.

Some may view all of this as visionary. But the fact is that it is well within this nation's resources. It is simply a matter of rearranging national educational priorities and reaching the people who control education. As a part of "basic education," let us settle for nothing less than the *goal* of universal literacy in two or more languages. In planning the future of our discipline, let us avoid being shackled by the past. Let us, instead, heed the words of George Bernard Shaw: "Some people see things as they are; and they ask 'Why?' But I dream things that never were; and I ask 'Why not?' " So, let us set goals based upon firm belief in universal multilingualism and continue to ask: 'Why not?"

Notes

1. Keynote Address, Central States Conference, Chicago, 1 April 1978.
2. Immanuel Kant, *Education* (Ann Arbor: Univ. of Michigan Press, 1960), p. 14.
3. Alvin Toffler, *Future Shock* (New York: Random House, 1971), p. 1.
4. Michael A. McDanield, "Tomorrow's Curriculum Today," *Learning for Tomorrow: The Role of the Future in Education*, ed. Alvin Toffler (New York: Vintage, 1974), p. 105.
5. Anthony Sampson, "Waterspeak," *London Observer*; rpt. *The* [*Madison*] *Capital Times*, 29 Oct. 1973.
6. "Electives Called Reason for Poor Student Scores," *The Milwaukee Journal*, 28 March 1978, p. 5.
7. Cited in Edward Cornish, *The Study of the Future* (Washington, D.C.: World Future Society, 1977), p. 15.

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2
The Foreign Language Teacher as "Con Artist"

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"*Madame*, this stuff we're learning is okay, but how do the French really talk?" When a student asked me this question after we had been working on a memorized dialogue, I knew what he meant. Educational methods and theories popped into my mind. Make the material relevant for the students. That is sound advice.

How often have you experienced excitement when viewing a filmstrip or a film? You've been there. You remember the view from the top of Chambord. You have seen the *gendarme* directing traffic. You have tasted the wine. You have seen a *pâtisserie*. You become dreamy-eyed and sentimental as you recount your experiences to the students. They listen courteously with a half-smile. Those among them who are not-so-curious do not hesitate to show boredom and (secretly) to question your mentality—wondering what's wrong with you. What *is* wrong with that? The filmstrips, the films, the pictures, and the dialogues are relevant to you. But the students are still confused about the difference between a *pâtisserie* and a *boulangerie*, and your stories have little *personal* meaning for them. Even so, teachers attempt to infest students with their excitement through descriptions of what they themselves have experienced. Not possible—or at least very difficult!

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How can the material be made familiar, exciting, and relevant? One way is simulation. Fill the classroom with the sights and sounds of the second language with realia. If a picture is worth a thousand words, realia are worth a thousand memorized dialogues. Besides, the

food unit is usually first sampled in lesson six and the unit that treats clothing is uncovered only in lesson eleven. And what greater interests do most students have than food and clothing?

Desirable classrooms teem with activity involving both students and teachers, but most especially with students *doing*. Participating in activities sparks interest in any material, which then becomes relevant. I work with eighth and ninth graders and have often wished I could persuade parents to withhold the students' vitamins and buy them for me instead. But if parents add to the energy problem in my classroom, I have decided to capitalize on it. I will keep the students moving.

The seeds of my idea of *simulated stores* lay dormant and untended for a long time. "I don't have time," I muttered while procrastinating. "I don't have room for all of that stuff," I mumbled to myself. "Where would I find it?" I wondered. "Where would I get the money?" And, as was custom, up went the tempting flannel food pictures and out came the dialogues. The pictures made us hungry and the dialogues bored *all* of us. Oh, they were not all that bad. We did, after all, learn some vocabulary and some structure. We learned how to say that we were hungry. But there had to be more! Better days and learning were to come.

Our Director of Curriculum solved my money problem, since he persuaded the Board of Education that many teachers have innovative ideas, but they normally have neither the time nor the money to develop them. Money was allotted and criteria set for the proposals. No more excuse to procrastinate! I became one of the chosen—with $800 to spend! The money was the catalyst for a long, searching journey.

The quest began in the toy sections of both stores and mail-order catalogs. I had in mind miniature food items and doll clothing. I discarded that idea fast for two reasons: the variety, supply, and "real" look were pitiful; I realized that junior high students would utterly reject them. So what now?

I sent a letter to parents requesting artificial fruits and vegetables and discarded clothing, suitable for teenagers and their families. I got a pineapple and a red *béret* (made in France!). That was *it*. So, I combed through specialty shops, variety and furniture stores, and decorator shops for plastic food—fake food—false food. My first finds were fruit; there are more phony fruits than vegetables available. Our "store"

now includes these items: oranges (one even has a soft spoiled spot), apples, bananas, pears, strawberries, raspberries, cherries, blackberries, grapes, plums, peaches (with fuzz!), lemons, and limes. And, naturally, one pineapple. The best source for vegetables was the specialty shops. In our classroom we buy and sell cucumbers, green and red peppers, tomatoes, green onions, head lettuce, cabbage, squash, green beans, peas, and a very large mushroom. The mushroom, cucumbers, and tomatoes look as if they have just been selected from the garden.

Our plastic fish, crab, mussels, and lobster came from the seafood department of a supermarket. Clam shells came from there, too, but only after we devoured the clams. The *escargot* shells are the leftovers of a delicious restaurant meal. Variety stores furnish styrofoam and plastic eggs, particularly at the Easter season. A can of white spray paint transforms them into hens' eggs.

The "store" also contains sliced sausage, whole chickens, and chicken legs. These came from the pet shelves of department stores. (One caution: remove the whistles! They pull out easily. Can you imagine thirty students with a chicken leg that whistles?) Some of our rolls also were bought in the pet department. In our bakery, we have *croissants*, *brioches*, and French bread—all purchased in the supermarket. I gave these dried items two coats of shellac. They preserve well.

Living and working near the Canadian border has advantages when one teaches French. Some items are available with bilingual labels. Cookies and crackers are good examples. But, if a border is not nearby, labels, wrappers, and flattened boxes take little room in a suitcase when returning home from a trip. If your language is not French, make up a quick substitution drill and put into the slot Spanish, German, Russian, Swahili, or whatever. Then start examining what your particular geographical area might have to offer. Make a list of items wanted before traveling to the country of the language you teach. Make a list of all possibilities. For example, companies such as Libby or Del Monte can be a good source.

If you are a joiner, try a group that yields double benefits—food and realia—like Cheeselovers' International. From them, I get cheese boxes, labels, mustard, and *pâté* cans. Of course, we always eat the contents. Some of these items can also be purchased at local markets:

Dijon mustard, roquefort cheese, and wine bottles with target language labels. Friends and colleagues will add to your inventory. The best place to get authentic articles, however, is the target language country. Fill your purses and/or pockets whenever and wherever you shop, tour, or eat.

Since possibilities are endless, a constant search yields ideas. I discovered that I had no need to buy lemons and limes since supermarket squeeze containers (which look like lemons or limes) are quite adequate. Imagination is the key. All of this variety means learning about the specific shops that can be put to sound pedagogical use: bakeries, the fish market, the meat market, and the delicatessen. Students make up the food prices as they buy and sell, which offers practice in the ratio of American money to the second language money. Openly outlandish attempts at fixing prices sometimes provide humor.

Clothing available in our "shop" came from Goodwill stores. The bargains are tremendous; the prices are right: *low*! Some of the clothes are new, or nearly so. I tried to find items that would not "turn off" my young students. Most of the items are for their age group, but a few can be purchased for other family members or friends. The color variety permits work on adjective agreement. The clothing is in French sizes and priced in *francs* and *centimes*.

Clothing for sale includes jackets, slacks, jeans, shirts, blouses, dresses, skirts, and sweaters. Men's and women's shoes can be purchased. Various caps and hats are for sale. We have swimming suits, stockings, and socks. Other accessory items include scarves, gloves, jewelry, ties, belts, sun glasses, and purses.

Play money would be less worrisome and can be purchased through realia companies. But we use real *francs* and *centimes*. Notes, but not coins, can be obtained at any bank in the United States. So, fill your suitcase with coins when you come home from your trip! The students do not actually have this money in their possession. They choose the right amount from our cashbox after it is handed to the salesperson. How different to use the money, rather than talk about it!

Where to put and keep all of this? I bought four sets of shelves, two of which are sturdy and heavy. The sturdiest contain our various foods, grouped by wares. The others hold colorful cardboard boxes for storing items not currently for sale. I also have larger cardboard boxes

that are used for storage when classes are not in session. They are of the same design and color as two cardboard wardrobes that double as storage and sales racks for the clothing. To these add two "fold-like-a-suitcase" tables, most versatile as partial or full-scale sales counters. An important hint: when buying for classroom use, a school district purchase order will insure that whatever you buy is tax free.

Students learn vocabulary and pronunciation through repetition long before spelling is a concern. Basic expressions are learned after vocabulary: I would like to buy _____; How much? How many francs? What size? What color? A multitude of structured situations can provide the framework for buying. One shopping spree can be for birthday gifts. Target language records and books can be added to the store as gift ideas for someone. The occasion can be Mother's Day, Christmas, or any special date. One lesson focuses on colors and another on adjectives like pretty, ugly, fresh, spoiled, expensive. Students add vocabulary and idiomatic expressions with each subsequent buying session. As they work in the store, they recognize what an actual shopping trip would be like and are quite eager to add expressions. Conversations are expanded by engaging in small talk going to and from the store. One of the biggest benefits is that one need not adhere to a specific lesson or time line. The food and clothing can be worked with on any given day throughout the school year. They can be the main focus of the hour or a supplement to reinforce some other aspect of a lesson.

Cultural learning occurs without drilling. Students learn that one must bring a bag to carry purchases. They experience respect and politeness by adding *Madame*, *Mademoiselle*, and *Monsieur* to *merci*, *bonjour*, or *au revoir*.

In the proposal, I included money for buying food to eat. We had French bread and cheese in one session, candy during another, and cookies in still another. When the students first buy, I am the clerk. They gradually become both customers and salespersons. But, I control the eating sessions by acting as salesperson. Are the students reluctant to buy on those days? You can bet your *francs*, *Marks*, or *pesos* that they are not! One of the ways to a student's *mind* is through the stomach! The original grant money has been spent, but we still have the eating sessions by using money that we raise through such activi-

ties as the sale of foreign candy to the entire school. Quiet seat work that needs doing anyway occupies those not buying. It *is* pleasant to eat cookies or cheese while struggling with yerbs!

Related benefits are many. We have a prop box for skits. Among the contents are skates, telephones (pink!), and a doctor's bag. But my students have also enjoyed using the clothing to dress for a particular event or using it as the basis of a skit theme. They often create a meal setting in a restaurant or in a home with the food. Recently, one student used the red *béret* for a stoplight. Any number enjoy using our prop dogleash with a lobster attached—a lobster-dog, if you will.

That which I have described is *not* just fun for fun's sake. Retention of vocabulary and sentence structure is superior to that which results from the previously memorized dialogues and vocabulary lists. When we attend a weekend foreign language camp, we have some expertise in buying at the kiosk before arriving at the camp. This knowledge leads to a more successful weekend than would otherwise be possible. Students enjoy being in a situation familiar to them and one which they can handle with success.

I have *never* had a student enter my classroom with the question: "Can we learn another dialogue today to say for the class?" But, I have students enter with, "Can we buy in the stores again today? It's fun!"

It's fun because it's relevant. *Meaningful* language learning experiences are the bottom line.

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3 Motivational Factors and Student Retention in School Foreign Language Programs

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One major reason for the decline in second language enrollments between second- and third-year high school levels could well be a mismatch between course content and student expectations and goals at the second-year level. Moreover, the focus of the second-year textbook is typically different from that for first year. This difference emphasizes the mismatch between content and expectations. While first-year texts often appear to encourage students to use the new language in situations to which they can relate, text materials for second year normally seek to widen their vocabulary and grammatical competence. Teachers talk constantly about the amount of detail and vocabulary to be taught and learned in short periods of time in the second-year classroom. Thus, three of the elements necessary for learning, according to John Carroll's model, are present in less than ideal amounts in second year: time, opportunity, and motivation.[1] Students may not be prepared to go from the first year in a language to the second year's emphasis on details. This apparent gap between student expectations and course content could influence students' decision concerning enrollment for a third year of language study.

Competencies that classroom teachers or textbook publishers think students ought to be able to achieve may not be possible within allocated time. An introduction to basic skills in a second language in one year is perhaps unrealistic. A differently structured program is needed, one based on curricular decisions that reflect student needs, expecta-

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tions, and goals in second-language study. In 1971, the Council of Europe established a committee of experts to consider, among other topics, how to increase motivation for language learning and how best to meet the diverse needs of learners.[2] This group concluded (p. 45) that, if curricular change is envisioned, "a certain amount of quantitative and qualitative information about the language needs of [students] learning a modern language will be indispensable." Consideration of student needs is particularly important at the second-year level of study in junior and senior high school settings.

Concerning student expectations and interests, the need for further study is reiterated in Helen Warriner's conclusions. Based on the results of a state-wide survey of students' attitudes, she observes that a most important factor in electing a foreign language was the students' own interest; but, when later asked their reasons for dropping or failing a foreign language, they said "loss of interest."[3]

Numerous attitude measures have been developed. Charles Hancock[4] and Gladys Lipton[5] describe such work, as well as efforts toward developing and implementing goals and objectives. Working Committee I (1970 Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) recommends that questionnaire data from students might aid teachers in documenting student expectations.[6] While attempts to produce such instruments have been moderately successful, difficulties in scoring make them less than appropriate for research purposes.

The remainder of this paper will present the results of one research study, the purpose of which was to identify and examine the importance of factors that influence secondary school student decisions to enroll in foreign language study beyond the second year. Consideration was given to such factors as motivation; expectations; attitudes toward other languages and other cultures; influence of family, peers, and teachers; classroom activities; and future plans, as well as sex, age, and language studied.

Motivation is Basic to Learning

Psychologists appear to agree that most human motives are learned.[7] Nelson and Jakobovits defined motivation as "a force or incentive within a person, that person's needs, ideas, organic state, and emo-

tions" (p. 34). Motivation, for the purpose of this paper, is used to mean that force or incentive within a student which leads to action.

Carroll (see note 1) presents a model that describes the degree of learning as a function of the time actually spent in learning in relationship to the time needed for that purpose.

$$\text{Degree of learning} = f\left(\frac{\text{time actually spent}}{\text{time needed}}\right)$$

Time actually spent, according to Carroll, consists of three elements: (1) the opportunity to learn; (2) the perseverance of the learner; and (3) the learner's aptitude. The numerator of this fraction is equal to the smallest of these three elements. The time needed to learn consists of two elements: the quality of the instruction and the ability of the learner to understand this instruction.

Within Carroll's model, some elements appear to be subject to the educator's influence, while others are obviously not so clear. The teacher may organize class time in such a way as to provide as much opportunity to learn as possible, and she or he may systematically improve the quality of instruction. The student comes to a learning situation with a given amount of aptitude for learning that particular subject and with a given ability to understand the instructions presented. However, the element of perseverance may be influenced by what the teacher brings to the teaching situation as well as by what the learner brings.

Carroll defines perseverance as "the time the learner is willing to spend learning" (p. 728), and he suggests many aspects of motivation within this element of perseverance: "to please the teacher, to please one's parents or friends, to get good grades or other external rewards, to feed one's self-esteem, to avoid disapproval . . ." (p. 729).

Robert Gardner, Wallace Lambert, and others contend that the distinction between "instrumental" and "integrative" motivation is at the heart of a basic classification of students in second language classes.[8] They hold that *instrumental motivation* has a utilitarian nature; students having this type of motivation to learn a second language see its acquisition as a means to an end such as future employment. *Integrative motivation* is described as social in nature, measuring the students' desire to enter the other culture.

Still other components of motivation might be considered important to a particular student within a given situation: (1) classroom activities; (2) interest in reading in the target language; (3) speaking in the target language; (4) travel in countries using the target language; (5) music from these countries; (6) career possibilities; and (7) the student's interest in language learning for its own sake.

These learner factors are worthy of study. Can the influence of each of them be identified? If so, the possibility arises that the teacher could arrange a learning situation that might engage the learners' interest and motivate them to remain enrolled longer than they might have done otherwise. Although Nelson and Jabobovits (p. 69) present evidence indicating that "students' negative attitudes may actually be strengthened, not weakened, by being forced to learn unwanted aspects of language." Perhaps the significance of their statement lies in the fact that the students were indeed "forced" to learn that which they found "unwanted." If the elements could be identified that influence students to "want" to study what formerly they found "unwanted," the classroom situation could be modified to enhance this desire to learn.

Students are Basic Sources of Motivational Information

Teachers can generate a list of components of motivation, taking into consideration their own students and teaching settings, as well as program goals and objectives. These teachers can then design an instrument to be administered to students in second language classes. This instrument can collect data describing factors influencing student motivation in second language study and can verify the teachers' perceptions of these factors. This process yields a separate instrument for each classroom setting.

Some instruments have been published concerning the collection of motivational information in any second language classroom. The *Foreign Language Attitude Survey* (FLAS), developed by Mary DuFort,[9] was intended for use as a combination of subscales measuring influences of teacher, parent, peer, importance of foreign language in the school curriculum, and intrinsic vs. instrumental motivation. This 30-item inventory seems too short to establish reliability for at least

six subscales. Jakobovits' *Foreign Language Attitude Questionnaire* (FLAQ) used five categories for subscales within its 32 items, measuring influences on choice of foreign language, interest in specific language skills, instructional process, and anomie. The problem with this instrument is its inability to sum across items in order to analyze students' responses (pp. 15–30). On the basis of the review of these and other measurement instruments available for data collection on student attitudes and motivation toward second language learning, I decided to construct an inventory, based on existing models, to test this instrument through a pilot study, and to use this new instrument in the data collection for my study.

The *Foreign Language Enrollment Motivation Inventory* (FLEMI) in its original form[10] was written for the Foreign Language Unit of the Minnesota State Department of Education, Division of Instruction, in 1973–74. It was used within the state to try "to find out why students in Minnesota enroll in a foreign language class" (p. 1). This questionnaire collected some background data on school district number, language studied, and grade level (7–8, or 9–12). The 42 items all follow the introductory statement: "I enrolled in this course because," and each is to be answered *yes* or *no* by each respondent. The items include apparent influence of requirements (high school or college graduation, college entrance) counselors, teachers, principals, parents; skills the student might have wanted to learn in the language class (speaking, reading); and other types of influence on the students' choices (peers, music, career, heritage, travel, scheduling, interest in language learning for its own sake). An open-ended item ended the inventory...All of the items are stated in a positive manner.

The FLEMI was expanded to include other influences on students who enroll in second languages, as well as to verify the reliability of their responses.[11] The questionnaire was aimed at students of any second language, with as many as eleven items referring to a given influence on enrollment, thus allowing for a statistical measure of internal consistency as well as an examination of the components of motivation. The responses available to the student were also expanded for this study to include: yes, sort of, not really, and no. Items were rewritten to state some questions negatively and some positively in

order to attempt to collect the least biased responses. Two forms of the inventory were devised. One was aimed at the students who planned to continue second language study by enrolling in third-year level French, German, or Spanish (FLEMI-C). The second form was aimed at those students who planned to discontinue study of their current second language (FLEMI-NC). An example of the parallel item format is as follows:

FLEMI-C: "I want to learn more of this language."
FLEMI-NC: "I've learned all of the foreign language I wanted to."

Similar items are grouped to form subscales that describe student interest, attitude, and motivation. The fifteen subscales show influences on the students' decision to continue language study from (1) FAMILY heritage; (2) FATHER's interest in second-language study; (3) MOTHER's interest; (4) SIBLING's interest; (5) student INTEREST in language learning for its own sake; (6) PEER influence; (7) school FACULTY, including teachers and administrators; (8) the activities within the second language CLASSroom; (9) student interest in SPEAKING the target language; (10) student interest in READING the target language; (11) interest in MUSIC of the second culture; (12) interest in TRAVEL in the second culture; (13) interest in OTHERS (peoples and cultures); (14) influence of requirements by educational institutions (EDRQMT); and (15) career goals and future jobs (FUTJOB).

Cronbach's Alpha was used as a measure of internal consistency for each of the fifteen FLEMI-C/NC subscales. These reliability estimates per subscale range from .47 to .92 with a median of .80.

Results of Recent Study Using the FLEMI – C/NC

Population and Sample. The sample for this study consisted of all 400 junior and senior high school students in second-year level classes in a Minnesota school district (nine classes in three senior highs and twelve classes in four junior highs).[12] Within this district, students may elect to continue language study beyond second-year level in each of three languages: French, German, and Spanish. The third year of each of these languages is taught only at the senior high schools; the second year is taught at both the junior and the senior high schools.

Procedures. The questionnaire was administered at the close of the school year, after the students had registered for the following year's courses. Students were given Form C or NC on the basis of their statement that they had or had not registered for the continuation of the language they were currently studying. The questionnaires were machine scored and computer analyzed.

Results by Subscale. The student responses were ranked from 1 to 4: 1 = yes, that's like me; 2 = sort of; 3 = not really; 4 = no, that's not like me. Thus, student responses per subscale were considered positive from 1.0–2.4 and negative from 2.5–3.0.

Students responded that the following categories were a positive influence on their decisions regarding continuation of second language study: CLASS, SPEAKING, MUSIC, OTHERS, INTEREST, FACULTY, and PEER. They also responded that the following did not influence their decisions regarding second language study: FAMILY, FATHER, MOTHER, SIBLING, EDRQMT, and FUTJOB. Thus, students seem to feel their own experiences with second language learning are more of an influence on their decision to continue than the outside influences of family heritage, requirements, and career plans.

Results by Continuation, Age, and Language Studied. When grouped by continuation, three subscales showed significant differences between continuing and noncontinuing students. Those planning to continue are apparently much more influenced by the categories of travel and speaking, while noncontinuing students are more influenced by family heritage. When grouped by age, two subscales showed significant differences between junior and senior high school students. Senior high students reported much more influence of reading, while junior high students reported much more influence of future job. Grouped by language studied, one subscale showed significant differences between students studying French, German, and Spanish. German students reported much more influence from the category of family heritage than did French or Spanish students. Thus, these regroupings of students in the study by continuation, age, and language studied revealed some significant differeneces on subscales of the FLEMI-C/NC.

Results by Factors. Factor analysis supported the combination of subscales that appeared to result from student responses. Factor I, the *internal factor,* includes: CLASS, SPEAKING, MUSIC, OTHERS, IN-

TEREST, and READING. Factor II, the *external factor*, includes the subscales: FAMILY, FATHER, MOTHER, SIBLING, FACULTY, EDRQMT, and FUTJOB. The other subscales are borderline cases. Thus, this analysis of the data collected supports the contention that students are influenced to continue second language study as much on the basis of their own successful experiences in language classes (which they reveal as the meeting of their needs and expectations) as they are by external factors.

Summary and Conclusions. Because significant differences were found in components of motivation influencing student decisions to continue second language study (age, language studied, and continuation), teachers might consider these factors in developing class activities and curricula. Since the FLEMI-C/NC appears to be an appropriate and efficient instrument for gathering data concerning these components, teachers might survey classes and incorporate results into the format and the content of their instruction.

The two factors resulting from combining the fifteen FLEMI-C/NC subscales present teachers with both the students' decision-making dilemma, and the direction for action on the part of educators that might favorably influence student decisions. The *internal* factor shows that language learning and language learning activities are serious considerations for the student; the teacher has much control over student experiences and exposure in this category. The *external* factor demonstrates that parents, faculty, future education, and career are also serious considerations for the student. The teacher has an obligation to have some positive influence on parents, faculty, and community, thereby encouraging a positive attitude toward continuation of second language study.

These two factors might also be interpreted to support Gardner and Lambert in their instrumental integrative dichotomy, since the subscale OTHERS is in the internal factor and the subscale FUTJOB is external. They actually go beyond merely labeling the student's intentions for using the language. These factors present the complexity of the student's decision-making process, as it occurs in U.S. secondary schools in the 1970s. Pressures on students by family, faculty, future education, and future occupation guide their choice. Pressures on their decision from within themselves have been shaped by experiences

within the second language classroom learning situation. The student may have developed an interest in language learning, in speaking, reading, and/or music of the target culture, and an enjoyment of class activities. If these internal influences are positive, they may carry as much, if not more, weight in the student's decision as external forces. If second-year students who enjoyed first year enough to re-enroll feel that their expectations in second year have not been met, this factor may carry enough weight to negate even positive external forces.

Teachers, parents, and especially textbook writers must begin to accept students at their level of language knowledge and use. Students may need several years of dealing successfully with basic skills in the language, and several years of activities oriented toward dealing with what they know before "intermediate" or "advanced" class activities are appropriate for, or desired by, the students. Surveying students' needs and influences on their decisions to re-enroll in second language study may make language learning more meaningful to students. A knowledge of the factors motivating students to continue second language study may identify areas in which the teacher and the curriculum planner can influence change. Identification of relationships among student goals, age, language studied, and desire to continue in second language programs is crucial to the development of curricula. Perhaps two or three years of introduction, familiarization, variation, and guided use in the second language, followed by two or three years of additional practice in using this second language, might lead the student to a stage of competency in which the details of grammar become relevant. Thus, an awareness of student motivation suggests some direction for adjustment in the curriculum toward meeting student expectations, and for steps to be taken in keeping the students in second language study beyond second year. Above all else, however, one might conjecture that the results of the survey indicate students themselves will keep foreign languages among the basics in the school curriculum if they have positive learning experiences in their initial classes.

Notes

1. John B. Carroll, "A Model of School Learning," *Teachers College Record*, 64(1963), pp. 723–33.
2. *Systems Development in Adult Language Learning: A European Unit/Credit System for Modern Language Learning by Adults.* (Strasbourg: Council for Cultural Cooperation, Council of Europe, 1973).
3. Helen P. Warriner, "Student Attitudes Toward Foreign Language Study: Results of a Survey," *Public Education in Virginia*, 8, i(1972), p. 7.
4. Charles R. Hancock, "Student Aptitude, Attitude, and Motivation," *Foreign Language Education: A Reappraisal*, ed. Dale L. Lange & Charles J. James. ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series, 4 (Skokie, Ill.: National Textbook Co., 1972), pp. 127–56.
5. Gladys Lipton, "Curricula for New Goals," Lange & James, *op. cit*, pp. 187–218.
6. Robert J. Nelson and Leon A. Jakobovits, "Motivation in Foreign Language Learning," *Foreign Languages and the 'New' Student*, ed. Joseph A. Tursi (Middlebury, Ver.: Northeast Conference, 1970), pp. 31–104.
7. Wilga Rivers, *The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher* (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1964).
8. Robert C. Gardner and Wallace E. Lambert, *Attitudes and Motivation in Second-Language Learning* (Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1972).
9. Mary DuFort, "Foreign Language Attitude Scale: Spanish." Copyrighted mimeograph, 1962.
10. *Foreign Language Enrollment Motivation Inventory.* (Minneapolis, Minn.: Minnesota State Department of Education, n.d. [c. 1973–74]).
11. Pamela J. Myers, "Student Factors as Indicators of Continuation in Secondary School Study of French/German/Spanish as a Second Language," Diss., Univ. of Minnesota, 1978.
12. Robbinsdale School District (20,000 students, K–12), encompasses thirty square miles bordering northwestern Minneapolis. It includes all of three suburbs, plus parts of four others. The population of the district is currently 110,000 people in 35,000 homes. The ethnic breakdown is approximately 98 percent Caucasian with the four primary minority groups totaling about 2 percent of the student population. The community includes a typical spread of AFDC one-parent, and well-to-do families. This district fits the general picture of a typical midwestern, middle-class suburb.

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4
Suggestive-Accelerative Learning and Teaching in Foreign Languages

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Despite varying approaches, updated texts, and increased teacher efforts, teaching and learning foreign languages often remain frustrating for all involved in these processes. A new pedagogy, "Suggestive-Accelerative Learning and Teaching" (SALT) offers teacher and student for the first time a possibility of lessening the frustrations involved in teaching and learning. Utilizing techniques usually not seen in the classroom of today, SALT is an alternative methodology which addresses itself to instruction of the basics in language learning and results in greater competency in all areas than has heretofore been possible.

The American term for *suggestopedia*, SALT was developed by Georgi Lozanov, psychiatrist and Director of the Institute of Suggestology in Sophia, Bulgaria. Based upon his understanding of the mind and experiences as a physician and therapist, Lozanov developed a theory of suggestology that, in turn, led to the development of suggestopedia which, while most extensively applied to the study of foreign languages, is applicable to all disciplines, but particularly to those based upon a foundation of memorized facts. Suggestion in this instance is *not* to be understood in conjunction with altered states of consciousness such as hypnosis. As put forth by Lozanov, suggestology deals with the unconscious receptivity of every individual, while in a normally alert state of mind, to direct and indirect suggestion.

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The suggestopedic teaching of foreign languages began in Bulgaria in 1965; reported results are astonishing.[1] Students learn an average of 80–100 words in a class period of approximately three hours; excellent short- and long-term retention rates are claimed. This method is not, however, merely an exercise in memory. Students actively use the material in a manner rarely equaled in American language learning.

The suggestopedic method of instruction is based upon the following premises: (1) that human learning and memory potential is far greater than most realize; (2) that the mind functions within the belief system it accepts as true; (3) that one learns best in a positive and relaxed state; and (4) that all persons are subject to both direct and indirect suggestion.

The validity of these premises is readily demonstrable in everyday life. One need only think, for example, of the unconscious ease with which an individual learns the words to a song considered enjoyable as compared to the laborious learning of such things as foreign language dialogues, vocabulary lists, spelling words, multiplication facts, or scientific formulas and categories. The belief system of a child who regards school as boring, or of students who believe they cannot learn a foreign language, will produce nothing but nonlearning unless their belief system is altered. Advertising slogans and jingles become a permanent part of our memory without intellectual concentration upon them. Modern advertising techniques are based upon exploitation of our memory capabilities and our receptivity to suggestion. Yet no teaching method for the classroom has ever sought to exploit intentionally these very human tendencies.

SALT includes aspects of such current American teaching strategies as affective education with its inclination to give each student individual attention and to appreciate his or her distinct qualities. Basic to SALT is acceptance of the possibility of an increased human potential and an intuitive outreach to each individual student. The SALT method also has a place for communicative competence (the goal of the Bulgarian model), for values education exercises, for occasional usage of audio-lingual techniques, and for activities to promote reading and writing skills.

Teachers would have to adapt SALT to their goals, programs, and situations—as is the case with any method of instruction. Various levels

of adoption are possible. One could use it in both specially designed classes (an ideal that most would be unable to realize) as well as in the regular classroom. With or without total implementation, teachers in every situation would benefit from the increased awareness of direct and indirect suggestion, alertness to an increased human potential, and the encouragement of positive, relaxed student attitudes. All of these are crucial to SALT methodology. If students learn more material than they commonly do at present (specifically vocabulary) easily and feel comfortable in the classroom, all instructional goals can approach actual realization. A side benefit, the importance of which is not to be underestimated, of SALT is increased self-esteem; for students enjoy greater satisfaction when they learn more and better than they have before. Summarized in one sentence, SALT is designed to contribute to the creation of a positive and relaxed learning atmosphere; music and rhythm are used to aid memory, and direct and indirect suggestions are understood and controlled.

The Bulgarian model utilizes a three-hour class session and consists of several components. Among them are a classroom specially equipped with comfortable chairs, soft lighting, and pleasant visual stimulation; the use of formalized relaxation techniques; direct suggestion given to students that they will learn readily; teacher awareness of indirect suggestions transmitted to the student; and, finally, a concert phase with the recital of new material in a specialized fashion. This last portion, together with relaxation and other mental techniques, is the most striking feature of this method. A suggestopedic class is divided into three portions: (1) the review of learned material; (2) the introduction and explanation of new material; and (3) the concert phase. We have ample evidence that indicates SALT's flexibility and adaptability.[2]

Relaxation exercises are rather commonly used in SALT methodology. Some may find this an unusual procedure for the classroom, but experience has shown such exercises valid in the learning context. Only a short amount of time, perhaps five minutes or even less, is spent on such exercises initially, and this amount decreases as the class progresses. Students quickly accept the suggestion to relax and are very soon able to do so themselves. The initiation of such an activity is to be prefaced by an explanation of the purpose—that one learns best in

a positive, relaxed state. One then draws examples from life outside the classroom to verify this statement. The excitement of reading a good book, the thrill of finally learning to pump a swing, the ease of watching television, or the excitement of pursuing a hobby might be mentioned as illustrations of intense learning when in a comfortable and relaxed state of mind. Such remarks are intended to reestablish feelings the learner experienced at the time of such learning and are called "early pleasant learning restimulation." Mind-calming exercises may also be used to contribute to the state of relaxation.[3] The teacher would be well advised to do the physical exercises, the directions for which could be taped, with the students. The teacher must also be convinced of the validity of such exercises so that he or she can enter into them totally.

Rhythmical deep breathing was originally an important part of the Bulgarian model and was practiced in order to increase the powers of concentration on the intuitive level. To synchronize a deep breathing pattern with the relaxation instructions and later with the music in the concert stage requires that teacher and students work together. Reportedly the stress of this aspect, which has not been demonstrated to be crucial to success, is lessening in the Bulgarian application.[4] The SALT method is still young, encompasses the total classroom, and is still changing; one should not be disturbed by this state of flux. Much research needs to be done yet to determine those aspects absolutely necessary to the method.

Though we have as yet no definitive instruments for measuring teacher effectiveness, those who establish a positive atmosphere are doubtless most successful. How else can one explain the differing degrees of effectiveness of, for example, two teachers, one of whom is very successful while the other is far less so, when each has the same training and works in the same subject matter with the same texts in the same school? A communication specialist has written: "The teachers I remember most vividly related to me more in a positive than in a negative way. They caused me to feel I had powers. I identified with them deeply, and I ascribe my eventual though late evolvement as a professor to my identification with them. I have evolved into a teacher who seldom feels negative toward a student."[5]

The teacher using the suggestopedic/SALT method is to be aware of and control both direct and indirect suggestion on several suggestive planes. At the beginning of class, the direct suggestion that the student will learn better and more easily with these methods is stated by the teacher. This suggestion is to be repeated and reinforced, keeping in mind that all positive reinforcement must be genuine and sincere. The learner, however, is never led to believe he or she will learn without effort.

Much indirect suggestion is conveyed by classroom decor or the lack thereof (as in most college and university classrooms!). Fortunately, public elementary and secondary classrooms are generally very happy and cheery places and will contribute positive indirect suggestion to the learner. Materials, too, furnish much indirect suggestion and, for this reason, deserve close examination for such things as stereotyping.

A third and vitally important area of indirect suggestion is that of nonverbal communication, which includes both voice and kinesics (body language). Most teachers are not aware of the tremendous impact body language can have. We may convey by our gestures and other unconscious physical movements exactly the opposite of what we say and think we wish to convey.

Those who might doubt the impact of nonverbal communication are urged to try a simple experiment. When talking with an American, keep moving closer to him or her—indeed, to a point less than one foot away. A negative response will be provoked because one is trespassing upon that person's (nonverbally) established territorial boundaries. Nonverbal suggestion can have an inestimable impact on students and their learning, for ". . . all of us are comfortable or uncomfortable in a relationship not as a consequence of what the other says to us about us, but *by the way he talks to us*. One does not walk into a room without communicating something, and the thing he is communicating is his response to his environment, himself, the place, and the persons present."[6]

It is more important for a teacher to understand nonverbal communication and its impact than to know how to score tests on a curve. Our teacher training programs, by ignoring the nonverbal aspects of communication, are failing those whom they train. Perfect control of

external methodological techniques and mastery of material will fail to result in good teaching and effective learning on the part of most students if the teacher lacks either intuitive or critical understanding of nonverbal communication.

While the SALT teacher is constantly involved with both direct and indirect suggestion, he or she is at the same time practicing "desuggestion." According to Dr. Lozanov there are three impediments to suggestion; they are logical, intuitive, and moral/ethical barriers, all of which must be circumvented if the student is to be receptive to suggestion. An example of the first would be the student's conviction based upon experience which has frozen him or her into a belief system that he or she is a *C* student. The intuitive barrier has an emotional foundation: "I can't learn a foreign language, I'm too old." Frequently the logical and intuitive impediments overlap. The third barrier will probably be encountered but seldom. However, where the predominant ethic of a group or school is other than what is generally considered universally acceptable, it will be a factor.

The Bulgarian model, while establishing the teacher as a sensitive figure of authority, stresses the use of pseudo-identities in language instruction, maintaining that their application serves as a shield against making mistakes. This aspect may not be an essential ingredient; however, students do enjoy such identities. The students must be affectively involved and engaged in "whole brain learning" activities that stimulate both verbal and nonverbal spheres.

The three-part structure of the SALT class is, as mentioned before, the review of learned material, introduction and explanation of new material, and the concert stage in which the material is to be committed to memory. The first portion will consist of activities designed to attain the instructional goals and will include testing or written exercises. For the language teacher, communication activities would be a part of this phase. Classic suggestopedia stresses role playing.

A number of activities and exercises have been designed to promote communication. Many of these also promote "whole brain learning," a concept which needs some clarification. The left side of the brain is the verbal hemisphere. The right hemisphere, all too seldom involved in the instructional process, is the nonverbal half and processes music, movement, feelings, and intuition. This rather simple ex-

planation reveals why, many years after instruction has ceased, students will remember the songs they learned in the language classroom but not the dialogues or grammar facts they so laboriously sought to master. Music, song, drama, and rhythm should be employed often in the suggestopedic classroom.

A fantasy trip can be a quick way to promote "whole brain learning" by involving the student's imagination. Before working, for example, with a new dialogue, the teacher could spend a short amount of time, perhaps three to five minutes, and construct with words and well-practiced voice timbre and tone a visual image of the setting for the dialogue. Such an activity can be conducted either in English or the target language, depending upon the level of the student. The teacher's imagination is the only limiting factor in designing a fantasy trip. The following is an example of what one might do in the usually dry arena of grammar.

> Please close your eyes. Keep them closed for as long as you are comfortable. Now imagine that you are a verb. What would it be like to be a verb? You would be very important. Without you no sentence could exist. There would be no action—no loving, no hating, nothing. You would be mobile. You would be moving around in your sentence. Sometimes you would be in the front, sometimes in the second position, and at other times you would be at the very end. That would make life interesting for you since it is pleasant not to be in the same place all the time. There would be consistency in your life as a verb, for you nearly always end in *en*. Occasionally you end in just *n*, but that adds a bit of variety to your life. Sometimes you would be weak, and the sign of this weakness is a *t*. In the simple past tense, the sign is a *te*. In your past participle you start with a *ge* and end in a *t*. Always there is a *t*, for this is the sign of your weakness. But you can be strong, too. You would get to change your vowel or consonant, and sometimes even you would become a whole new word, like getting a new outfit. If you are strong, your past participle, like your relative, the weak verb, starts with *ge* but always ends in *en*. If you were a verb, let's hope you would realize that: The life of a verb/Is not just a blurb./It's very exciting/And quite inviting./Sometimes weak, sometimes strong,/Always moving along,/A verb is exciting/For speaking and writing.

The above served as an introduction to an explanation of the verbal system in German. It consumed a very short amount of time, immediately caught the attention of everyone, and promoted a very positive attitude and receptivity to the explanation that followed.

The explanation of new material is the second sequential portion of the SALT language class. This would include perhaps the introduction of a new dialogue or narrative selection, an explanation of grammar, words, or pronunciation, and cultural information—whatever the teacher considers important. Dialogues prepared purposefully for suggestopedic or SALT instruction would be rather long as one wishes an impacted vocabulary. In the Bulgarian model, this portion of the class may include an explicative reading of the dialogue with students passively following a written text.

The third phase, the concert stage, will not be implemented every day within the American educational time frame. For this portion, the sense of relaxation is reinforced either through very brief relaxation or mind-calming exercises or simply the reminder that the students are to be relaxed. Music is then played while the teacher recites the material with first active and then passive student involvement.

Baroque music is recommended because it seems most suitable for reading or serious thinking. Pick a kind of relaxing music to which students will respond well and with which the teacher can become dynamically involved. Whatever is chosen is to offer both slow and fast movements and should provoke no words within the mind of the student.

Active involvement of the students means they have visual stimuli before them, most probably a printed text. Students are instructed to form an image for each word as they hear it. They are told to imagine the word or a situation for the word and that they will become more adept at doing this. Visual imagery is to be stressed as a proven aid to mnemonic abilities. The teacher, too, is advised to become involved with the word or words, to project in his or her mind an image for the word.

The teacher then recites the material. The word or phrase is recited three times—the first time in the target language in a normal tone of voice; the second time, the English equivalent in a whisper; and the third time in the language in a loud and authoritative manner with appropriate pauses between each word.

For the passive phase of the concert stage, students have no visual stimuli. They are told to concentrate on the music or the voice of the teacher, whichever they prefer. They are also reminded not to become

drowsy, but to stay alert and relaxed. The teacher again recites the material in a normal manner reflecting the desired intonation and expression. The delivery is to be dynamic; the teacher is to be involved with the material, music, and rhythm.

An experimental class using SALT methods was conducted at Colorado State University for three weeks during January of 1978. The results of that class from both student and teacher viewpoints were very exciting and encouraging to continued research, development, and adaptation. The students, all of whom were adult volunteers, were highly motivated. They were not able to devote extensive time to study outside of class, and nearly one third were at or below the fifth percentile on the Modern Language Aptitude Test. Several had very negative attitudes about their ability to succeed in language study.

In fourteen days the amount of lexical material presented (about 1500 words) was close to that of a full first-year college course of ten credits. The time spent was equal to approximately six and one-half weeks of a university course meeting fifty minutes daily. All aspects of SALT methodology were followed, although some experimentation took place with the material recited during the concert phase. Each day students were given a combination recollection/recall test on the vocabulary of the previous day. The class average was 74.1 percent. On the thirteenth day, the students were writing cinque poetry, a type of poem with a prescribed construction of five lines. The final day was a very enjoyable experience with a "show and tell" activity. Student reactions were, without exception, positive.

What these language learners were able to do after a short amount of time was most impressive. SALT methods put forth an unusually large amount of material quickly, and the students apparently learn it better and more quickly than with other methods. This means one can be engaged sooner in more enriching activities. Difficult passages can be read earlier, and communication activities will be more meaningful because of the larger vocabulary base. Nouns in particular are the easiest word group to memorize because of the ease with which visual images can be formed. According to one writer, ". . . the greatest incidence of unfamiliar words in unedited foreign language texts is nouns; some estimates are as high as 90 percent."[7] A great deal of communication can occur just through nouns.

No matter what the material or discipline, higher levels of instruction can be attained sooner and become more meaningful if the factual foundation is acquired more quickly.

The method is being used by this author for intermediate and advanced language instruction with regular classes, and results are most encouraging. Because of scheduling difficulties, it was impossible to arrange an experimental design. However, student reactions have been positive without exception, and the impression is that considerably more effective learning has occurred. Vocabulary usage and comprehension is far richer than it was before this method was employed.

Because SALT is still very young, materials are not readily available. Consequently, one either has to adapt materials or create them. The possibility of increased quantity of student learning would make the effort worthwhile. Since students learn more, the teacher's workload is increased. Whether one finds the suggestopedic/SALT method of interest or not, it nonetheless sends out a strong message to every teacher, demanding that we stand back and attempt to assess objectively the atmosphere created in our classrooms. We send both constructive and destructive messages to students directly and indirectly. Not all teachers would be comfortable with an organized approach to promoting relaxation, but this could be done in a very small way. Much could yet be done to attack the problem of anxieties and inhibitions to learning.

SALT is no educational panacea. The teacher using this method, or even some of its components, needs to be well informed about the method and the theories behind it. No new educational "gimmick," SALT is a total approach to teaching and learning and also an attitude regarding people. With or without our understanding, forces at work in our classrooms can present problems in every teaching/learning situation. We may make the choice to understand such subtle forces, and as educators our outreach can only be enriched if we seek to increase our awareness.

Suggestive-Accelerative Learning and Teaching (SALT) methods hold the promise of bringing a new awareness to both teachers and students. These techniques provide an alternative method that can increase control of the basics and improve competency.

Notes

1. See W. Jane Bancroft, "The Lozanov Language Class," *The Journal of Suggestive-Accelerative Learning and Teaching*, 1(1976), pp. 48–74. This journal, hereafter cited as *JSALT*, is published by the Society for Suggestive-Accelerative Learning & Teaching, 2740 Richmond Ave., Des Moines, Iowa 50319. See also Bancroft's essay "The Lozanov Method and its American Adaptations," *Modern Language Journal*, 62(1978), pp. 167–75.
2. Charles A. Gritton, "Practical Issues in Adapting Suggestopedia to an American Classroom," *JSALT*, 1(1976), pp. 317–35.
3. A more complete explanation of classroom procedures than space permits here is given in Donald H. Schuster, Ray Benitez-Borden, and Charles A. Gritten, *Suggestive, Accelerative Learning and Teaching: A Manual of Classroom Procedures Based on the Lozanov Method*. Order from: Society for Suggestive-Accelerative Learning and Teaching at the address given in note 1 above.
4. Joseph J. Allen, "On Teacher Training Experience at the Research Institute of Suggestology, Bulgaria," *JSALT*, 1(1976), p. 316.
5. Charles T. Brown, "Teaching for Communication," *Teaching for Communication in the Foreign Language Classroom*, ed. Renate A. Schulz (Skokie, Ill.: National Textbook Co., 1976), p. 12.
6. Charles T. Brown, "Communication and the Foreign Language Teacher," *The Challenge of Communication*, ed. Gilbert A. Jarvis. ACTFL Review of Foreign Language Education, 6 (Skokie, Ill: National Textbook Co., 1974).
7. Janet King et al., "A New Reading," *Perspective: A New Freedom*, ed. Gilbert A. Jarvis. ACTFL Review of Foreign Language Education, 7 (Skokie, Ill.: National Textbook Co., 1975), p. 189.

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5
Screening Students for Intensive Courses: A Survey of Past and Current Practice, With Suggestions for New Programs

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The intensive approach to language teaching at the college level has received considerable attention in recent years—and with very good reason. According to Theodore B. Kalivoda, "Evidence indicates that intensive courses help some students learn a foreign language better. . . . There are undoubtedly students on both the high school and college levels who would benefit from intensive instruction more than from traditionally scheduled foreign language classes."[1] In addition to facilitating learning for some, the intensive approach also seems to stimulate student interest. Renate A. Schulz describes several intensive programs that have had a positive effect on student enrollment.[2] Finally, students who have completed intensive programs often elect to enroll in advanced language courses in exceptionally high percentages. David P. Benseler, for example, reports that of the first seventy students to complete the undergraduate intensive program in German at Washington State University, fifty-one subsequently enrolled or intended to enroll in upper division German classes, with the majority of those declaring or intending to declare German as a second major.[3]

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Because of the effectiveness of the intensive method in transmitting linguistic skills as well as in attracting and retaining students, it seems reasonable to assume that experimentation with intensive programs in college and university curricula will continue. Intensive courses do not, however, represent the illusive cure-all for the ills of this country's language departments: the intensive approach is not an

unqualified success with every student. As Howard Lamson reports, concerning the ten-week intensive Spanish course at Earlham College, the "largest single problem involved students who learn a language slowly."[4] Students who are slow learners or have low language aptitude are at a definite disadvantage in the intensive course, although many of them do acceptable work. In listing some of the disadvantages of intensive courses for both students and teachers, Horst F. Richardson states, "absences from class may be of serious consequence"[5] to the student. Since absenteeism is avoidable in most cases, Richardson is referring essentially to a motivational problem; and it does seem that students who lack sufficient motivation to apply themselves to their studies on a regular basis are even less successful in such courses than in more traditional programs.

Intensive courses are, thus, highly promising options, but it cannot be maintained that the intensive approach represents the best method of language learning for all students in all circumstances. It would, therefore, seem worthwhile to employ some type of screening procedure in order to detect, and discourage from enrolling, those students whose poor learning ability or lack of enthusiasm makes them prime candidates for failure.[6]

As might be expected, a number of existing intensive programs *do* screen prospective students before enrollment. Surprisingly, however, many other successful programs do not employ specific devices for selecting only the most promising students; and the conclusion might be drawn that, in reality, prospective students for intensive courses need not be subjected to a selection process. In most programs that have no prerequisites for enrollment, however, the general population from which students are drawn is itself a select group, or a rather subtle screening process is intrinsic to the design of the course; and such factors are of considerable significance in determining what screening devices are most suitable for a specific program, or whether any additional screening is necessary at all.

A number of this country's more prestigious colleges and universities have relatively high admission standards and attract, for the most part, students who may be assumed to have sufficient motivation and learning ability to benefit from intensive instruction. The success of the well-known Dartmouth Intensive Language Model,[7] for example,

may well be based not only on the methodology employed and the enthusiasm of the instructors but also on the general quality of the students attending that college.

General university policies other than admission standards may also assist in promoting the success of intensive programs. At Southern Illinois University at Edwardsville, for example, students who have at their disposal the large blocks of free time required for Intensive French are primarily those from the Deans College, "students who have indicated that they have the motivation and self-discipline necessary for independent work [and] are not obliged to complete the General Studies program."[8] When Colorado College introduced a modular system of instruction in 1970, virtually all courses became intensive. Students enrolling in intensive German are, therefore, familiar with the approach employed and may very well have enrolled at this institution at least in part because they have a predilection for the intensive method. In addition, at Colorado College "the greatest attraction in the second year is the . . . intermediate course in Munich. From the middle of April to the end of May students, at minimal additional cost, can participate in the classroom abroad program."[9] As John A. Wallace has pointed out, the average student can make a great deal of progress in a language if he is motivated "by the immediacy of the impending overseas experience."[10]

This motivating factor probably played a great role in the initial success of the intensive eight-week summer program in Spanish at Oklahoma State University, which "was originally set up to accommodate the needs of technical personnel who were soon to leave for Spanish America."[11] Although those planning an immediate trip abroad are now a minority in the course, their presence and enthusiasm undoubtedly serve as stimulating influences on the remaining students. The intensive program in Spanish at Earlham College consists of a "ten-week, intensive-language course on campus and a ten-week, cultural-immersion program in Mexico with continued intensive-language study."[12] Once again, anticipation of a stay abroad is undoubtedly a strong incentive during the introductory ten-week course, and more than average initial motivation may be assumed for students who are willing to expend the time, efforts, and funds necessary for study abroad.

Other intensive programs would also seem to be attractive only to students who are highly motivated. The summer course in German for undergraduates at Washington State University, for example, is intended for high school graduates who plan to begin their general university studies at Washington State the following fall.[13] Obviously, those students who elect to spend the summer between their high school graduation and their first long session at a university in a summer intensive language program are more language-oriented and motivated than most.

It appears, then, that some form of screening is, indeed, an integral part of existing intensive programs—even those which employ no formal devices for this purpose—and practice does conform with the seemingly logical assumption that it is desirable to discourage the enrollment of those who show little promise of success. Planning for the introduction of new intensive programs or the revision of existing courses should, therefore, include provisions for appropriate screening procedures.

Consideration should first be given to the scholastic ability and motivational level of the prospective recruits, as determined by general university standards or policies and by the design of the course. In some cases further screening will be unnecessary. Many colleges and universities, however, have a rather heterogeneous student body with various gradations of motivation and ability; and many intensive programs cannot, for various internal reasons, be designed in such a way that they promise to attract only students likely to succeed. This is especially true if language requirements exist and the intensive course represents an appealing option for students who have been unsuccessful in previous language courses or whose antipathy to language study is so strong that they have delayed completing the requirement as long as possible. At such institutions the employment of some specific device to screen students prior to their enrollment in intensive courses is advisable.

Of course, no screening program can succeed if the number of interested students does not considerably exceed the anticipated size of the class. The first step in the selection process is, therefore, a vigorous publicity campaign.

If the course is intended for incoming freshmen, a successful publicity campaign might include news releases sent to all state, regional, and local newspapers; announcements in a regular or special college publication sent to principals and high school counselors; descriptions published in the journal of the state association of foreign language teachers; and posters mailed to all foreign language teachers in the state or region. All of these publicity techniques are utilized for the undergraduate summer intensive program at Washington State University.[14] If students are to be recruited from among those already enrolled, information releases to student advisors, posters placed at strategic locations on campus, articles in the student newspaper, and announcements on the campus radio station are among possible means of publicizing the course; but word-of-mouth advertising resulting from enthusiastic descriptions of the course before various student groups, such as traditional language classes, may be most effective in disseminating information concerning it. After the first year of the program, it is especially effective to employ former students as speakers.

Once suitable means for publicizing the course have been determined, consideration should be given to the second step in the selection process, pre-enrollment screening. Selection of students on the basis of language aptitude or scholastic ability has a relatively long and successful tradition. Such criteria were employed in the specialized armed forces intensive language training program during World War II. The Navy Japanese Language School, for example, rejected seven of each eight applicants, and Robert John Matthew asserts that the "rigid selection of students before enrollment, of which every student was aware, aided in the maintenance of high standards throughout the program and cut academic casualties in the school to a minimum."[15] High standards for admission to intensive courses were also characteristic of at least some of the programs introduced at American colleges and universities during and immediately after World War II.[16] In addition, objective tests measuring aptitude or ability are included in the selection process for some of the more successful intensive courses today. For example, at Southern Illinois University at Edwardsville, "the first criterion for admission to the Intensive French program was the composite ACT score of entering freshmen";[17] and James A. Kilker and Frank Gunderson state that "an adequate aptitude as evidenced

by a minimum score of 86 points on the Modern Language Aptitude Test"[18] was required for admission to the intensive French course at Southern Illinois University at Carbondale. The latter two authors were quite pleased with the reliability of that test and recommend even higher standards, concluding that the "cutoff point (86) was probably too low" (p. 853). Other objective criteria, such as grade point average and SAT scores, might also be considered.

Despite the successful utilization of various objective measures of aptitude and scholastic achievement for screening purposes, however, such procedures are based on a rather traditional and elitist concept of language learning which has come into question in recent years. In keeping with the more democratic views of language education today, Leon A. Jakobovits believes that slow learners may be quite successful in intensive courses,[19] and Theodore B. Kalivoda recommends "that high school or college students interested in learning a foreign language intensively should not be programmed out of taking the course because of low aptitude."[20]

There are, in fact, some reasons to accept the hypothesis that high levels of aptitude or ability may, indeed, be unnecessary prerequisites for enrollment in intensive programs at the college level. In commenting on his experience as an instructor in the Army Specialized Training Program in German, Professor Otto Springer of the University of Pennsylvania expressed the belief in 1944 that "a class of A.S.T.P. trainees . . . was not much better or worse than the average class of students at Pennsylvania."[21] More recently, R. Baird Shuman has indicated that language is learned fastest and most effectively by students enrolled in various military and civilian intensive language institutes, such as the Army Language School at Monterey, California, and those conducted by the Peace Corps and the Foreign Service.[22] He then points out "that many such people have been weak, even failing, language students in the past" (p. 23). What enables individuals who have been unsuccessful language students at one stage of their development to become successful later? Shuman concludes that high motivation is "probably the most significant single factor in operation here."[23]

If high motivation is, indeed, of such great significance in determining success or failure in intensive courses, it would seem logical to

include this factor as a criterion in the screening process. Some successful intensive programs do so. Students who wish to enroll in intensive French at Southern Illinois (Carbondale), for example, must display high motivation during a personal interview, as well as scoring 86 or above on the Modern Language Aptitude Test.[24] Personal interviews prior to registration are also required at other institutions, such as the University of Texas (Arlington),[25] and it may be assumed that students who display little motivation during these interviews are not encouraged to enroll.

Less subjective means of determining motivation may also be utilized. After the initial year of the program, for example, a student's classification might be a useful criterion in the screening process. It might be assumed that upper level students who have previously ignored the opportunity to enroll in an intensive course are less language oriented than those who enroll while at the lower level, and the hypothesis that students who postpone language courses until their senior year may be poor prospects for intensive programs was confirmed by the experimental fifteen-week German program at North Texas State University (NTSU).[26]

In addition, questionnaires measuring degree of positive attitude toward the language might also assist in identifying those with less incentive and, hence, less likely to succeed. Students entering the NTSU program were asked to indicate how much they expected to enjoy it, on a scale of one (very much) to ten (very little). Those who completed the course successfully averaged 2.74. Those who did not, averaged 5.14. Students were also asked to indicate how much German they hoped to learn, on a scale of one (as much as possible) to ten (as little as is necessary for a passing grade). Those who completed the program averaged 1.57. Those who did not, averaged 3.71.

Although objective criteria for measuring motivation, such as those mentioned above, might be employed in selecting students, it is possible to organize an effective intensive program without denying any student permission to participate. Simply by stressing the demanding nature of the course, an effective process of self-screening may be initiated. Apparently the only screening procedure employed for the successful intensive program in German at the University of Texas (Arlington) was to "interview all potential students, informing them of

the nature of the program, its goals, and their obligations to it."[27] Gertrude Marti is impressed by the concept of self-screening and reports that, for intensive French at Southern Illinois (Edwardsville), "a third, perhaps most important, factor in admissions was stressing, in advance, the difficulty of the program. . . . Therefore, in interviewing each applicant, the toughness of the course, its demanding nature, and the fact that ten hours of credit and grade would depend upon this one subject, all were emphasized" (p. 1147).

Self-screening was also employed with students expressing interest in intensive German at North Texas State. They were told that intensive German promised to produce better results than the traditional sequence and that they were free to enroll, but they were also informed that their chances of success would not be great if they felt that they did not possess good learning ability or were not sufficiently motivated to make a total commitment in terms of regular preparation, attendance, and participation. Since less than half of those who sought information enrolled, and the great majority of those who did were successful,[28] it may be assumed that such self-screening effectively inhibits the enrollment of those less likely to succeed.

If self-screening is the only means of selection that is employed, preregistration is desirable in order to insure that all students who enroll have received the required counseling and understand its implications. In addition, some type of postenrollment screening is also necessary. Even when given sound advice, some students overestimate their abilities or motivation. Those who do must be made aware of this fact as soon as possible. The pace that will be sustained throughout the semester should be established on the very first day. At least one major test should be completed, the results made known to students, and individual counseling provided where needed before the deadline for transferring to other courses. This procedure, which is useful with any pre-enrollment screening method, is obviously beneficial to high-risk students who may be unable to keep pace with the class and are, therefore, in danger of wasting an entire semester. However, it is also of considerable value to teachers, who can in this manner avoid a good deal of potential criticism from students who are likely to be dissatisfied with the course.

Postenrollment screening procedures, such as those mentioned above, are quite helpful and represent the final step in a three-part screening process that seems advisable for most intensive programs. The first step consists of a publicity campaign to arouse initial student interest; the second involves the employment of some device for pre-enrollment screening, which is quite worthwhile, unless the quality of the institution's general student body or the design of the program itself insures that only those likely to succeed will enroll.

Among the many pre-enrollment screening methods that have been discussed, one or a combination should be appropriate for any conceivable intensive program at any college or university. Objective measurements of aptitude or ability have proven to be useful in the selection process. In addition, objective means of determining enthusiasm or motivation may be utilized; and subjective assessments of motivation are also valuable.

Some method that considers both ability, or aptitude, and incentive, such as that employed at Southern Illinois (Carbondale),[29] is, no doubt, superior to any that considers either alone. However, since motivation may well be the critical factor in determining success or failure in an intensive course, it would seem reasonable to utilize high motivation as the major criterion for admission to the program, with objective measurements of aptitude or ability, unless they are exceptionally low, being employed primarily as means of identifying those who are likely to have the greatest difficulty and, therefore, require the most attention.

The best means of discouraging the enrollment of the less promising among those who express interest may, however, involve a process of self-screening in which students are informed of the demanding nature of the program and allowed to determine for themselves whether their own ability and motivation will suffice. Such a procedure eliminates the danger that a student with only average learning ability or aptitude, but with sufficient motivation to benefit from intensive instruction, will be denied the opportunity to enroll. In addition, this procedure is more compatible than others with today's more democratic view of language learning, and it possesses the added advantage of not creating the animosity that may result if students are prohibited from participating in a program they find attractive.

Notes

1. "Organization of Intensive Instruction: Dispelling Misconceptions and Facing Realities," *Hispania*, 58(1975), p. 119.
2. "Successful Foreign Language Programs on the College Level: Report of a Survey" sponsored by the National Endowment for the Humanities and conducted in 1977. Presented at the joint national meeting of ACTFL and AATG, San Francisco, 25 Nov. 1977.
3. David P. Benseler, "Increasing Upper-Division Language Enrollment Through Intensive Language Learning," *Foreign Language Annals*, 11(1978), p. 418. A similar course for graduate students from disciplines other than German is described by Benseler and Gertrûd S. Mazur, *Modern Language Journal*, 57(1973), pp. 259–62.
4. Howard Lamson, "Intensive Language and Cultural Immersion: A Cooperative Method," *Foreign Language Annals*, 7(1974), p. 672.
5. Horst F. Richardson, "The Teaching of College German Under a Modular System," *Modern Language Journal*, 57(1973), p. 190.
6. Screening would seem to be especially advisable in the first years of a program, when a relatively high failure rate might lead sometimes skeptical administrators to consider the program a failure and to discontinue it.
7. Information and a film describing the program are available through Association-Sterling Films, Department OB, 866 Third Avenue, New York, New York 10022. Additional information may be obtained from Professor John Rassias, Department of Romance Languages and Literatures, Dartmouth College, Hanover, New Hampshire 03755.
8. Gertrude Marti, "An Intensive French Experience: Some Observations and Results," *The French Review*, 45(1972), p. 1146.
9. Richardson, p. 193.
10. "Three Weeks Equals Thirty Weeks?—A Report on an Experimental Intensive January Language Course," *Foreign Language Annals*, 6(1972), p. 89.
11. John J. Deveny, Jr. and Jonathan C. Bookout, "The Intensive Language Course: Toward a Successful Approach," *Foreign Language Annals*, 9(1976), p. 58.
12. Lamson, p. 668.
13. Benseler, p. 417.
14. Benseler, pp. 418–19. Similar procedures could, of course, be employed if the class is to be composed of students attending other institutions for most of the year, as was the case with the experimental program at the School for International Training (Wallace, pp. 88–89).
15. Robert John Matthew, *Language and Area Studies in the Armed Services: Their Future Significance* (Washington, D.C., 1947), p. 24. Considerable valuable information is contained in such standard, older works as that by Matthew and the November 1944, *Army Specialized Training Issue* of *The German Quarterly*, which contains ten articles on the intensive approach.
16. For example, the intensive program at Institution E, as described by Matthew, p. 116.
17. Marti, p. 1146.
18. James A. Kilker and Frank Gunderson, "Intensely French: A New Program," *The French Review*, 45(1972), p. 852.
19. *Foreign Language Learning: A Psycholinguistic Analysis of the Issues* (Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1970), p. 235.
20. (Page 118.) As has been noted, most successful intensive programs today do not set rigid standards of language aptitude and/or scholastic ability for admission, although this policy is probably due less to any adherence to democratic principles than to the need to play the "numbers game"—to have sufficient enrollment to satisfy administrative guidelines.
21. "Intensive Language Study as a Part of the College Curriculum," *The German Quarterly*, 17(1944), p. 231.
22. "Let's Get Foreign Language Teachers Out of Our Public High Schools!" *Modern Language Journal*, 55(1971), p. 23.

23. (Page 23.) On the basis of personal experience with the fifteen-week intensive program in German at North Texas State University, I would agree that, presupposing the modicum of ability that still characterizes the average college student, motivation may be the primary factor determining success or failure in intensive courses.
24. Kilker & Gunderson, p. 852.
25. Ted E. Frank, "A Practical Approach to Intensive German," *Die Unterrichtspraxis*, 6, i(1973), p. 6.
26. Five of the six unsuccessful students who responded to a questionnaire anticipated graduating at the conclusion of the semester. In contrast, only six of the twenty-four successful students expected to graduate the same semester.
27. Frank, p. 6.
28. Twenty-four of the thirty-two original students completed the entire fourteen-hour sequence successfully.
29. Kilker & Gunderson, p. 852.

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Foreign Languages for Gifted Learners

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In the past sixteen years, the Millard Public Schools have grown from a district in which junior and senior high students shared a single building to one with two junior high schools (7th and 8th grades), a Level I (9th and 10th grades), and a Level II high school (11th and 12th grades). As of October 1978, total enrollment in the secondary schools was 4,455 and still rising. The Foreign Language Department, established in 1962 with one year of Spanish, has grown with and shared the resultant problems of the district.

The most recent problem concerned offering beginning foreign languages to younger students—without conflicting with the philosophy of the junior highs and without compromising our already strong foreign language program. By the 1977–78 school year, the district offered four years each of French, German, and Spanish, beginning in the ninth grade. In addition, with the exception of band and reading students, all eighth graders took a Language Survey Course. This year-long class is divided into three sessions of twelve weeks, each devoted to the study of the culture, the basic phonetic system, and very simple vocabulary and expressions of a specific language. At the end of their eighth-grade year, students have acquired a strong basic background in three important western cultures: they also have an understanding of which language they wish to study—if indeed they have discovered through the course that they are interested at all. Since the addition of Language Survey to the curriculum, we have had a lower attrition rate and fewer students switching languages after the first year of study.

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For several years parents and students had been telling us that they would like to see Millard offer at least five years of foreign languages. A survey given in the spring of 1978 to all foreign language students proved this opinion to be that of the majority. The simple solution to this logistical problem would have been to move the Language Survey Course to the seventh grade and to begin language study in the eighth. However, because of the reading requirement in the seventh grade and the philosophy that junior high students should not specialize, this solution was impossible. To drop Language Survey was unthinkable. An overwhelming majority of students, foreign language teachers, and building administrators agreed that this course was extremely important and effective. What, then, was the solution that could be accepted by all parties?

Most of the students who had stated a desire for more levels of foreign languages were successful in their language study. Many were academically talented. If we could devise a system to identify the gifted student and the student who was talented in language study, we would have a plan that would aid the school district with its development of a program for the education of the gifted. It did not take long to discover that little work had been done in this area, but with the help of Dr. Charles Speiker, Director of Secondary Education, Millard Public Schools, and Dr. Sidney Hahn, Associate Professor in Secondary Education at the University of Nebraska at Lincoln, we were able to develop an identification process.

Identification of the Academically Talented Foreign Language Student

The California Achievement Test scores of all seventh graders were screened. Those students who had a composite score on or above the 90th-percentile or a language expression score on or above the 96th-percentile qualified to take a foreign language aptitude test. Due to the late date on which the decision to test was made, we were unable to utilize the Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery. Therefore, we developed our own test, on which we required a positive score of nine out of fifteen possible answers. In the future we will use the Pimsleur Battery and determine a minimum score based on the national statistics available on the test scores. Since we did not know how many

students would qualify and decide to take a language in the eighth grade, we asked the students to list the three languages in order of preference and to name the language(s) they would not take. Although they expressed preferences, all students were willing to take any language offered.

Students who qualified for foreign language study based on our screening procedure were informed of the options of taking Language Survey or a foreign language or band in eighth grade. They were then asked to make their decision. Parents were also informed of the available options, asked to discuss them with their children, and to give their approval of the choice. The major difficulty which remains, because of scheduling problems, is that students still must choose between band and foreign languages.

In one junior high, the identification process resulted in thirty qualified students enrolling in foreign languages. This enrollment allowed us to offer classes to ten students in each of the three languages. However, we had a problem at another in which enrollment was too low to offer three classes and too high to offer only one. By dropping the required score on the test to eight, we were able to gain sufficient students to offer the three languages with fifteen students in each class.

Course of Study

Since the screening process had been handled by the office of curriculum development and the guidance counselors, it was now the Foreign Language Department's turn to work. The department head and the teachers who would teach the classes for gifted students met during a week in June to develop a course of study that would be unique and at the same time provide the material necessary to allow students to be integrated into the regular second-year program. We decided to use the same texts and cover the same number of units because of the unclear future of the gifted program beyond the eighth grade. However, we have discovered that, even with additional materials provided, this pace is too slow for talented students who must be challenged at all times. The only solution is to allow them to continue their foreign language study as a separate class at their own pace.

This decision made, we had to determine which additional materials and procedures would be best. We decided that the students

could continue developing reading, writing, and speaking skills, as well as gain insights into the target culture independently of the class. We developed a course in which reading, writing, and communication skills are introduced early through the use of readers and real communication strategies. The materials designed during the summer were only examples of strategies that are continually being changed and developed as we learn about the unique talents and problems of the gifted student.

Characteristics of the Gifted

Although all students must be regarded as individuals, the gifted do share some common characteristics which distinguish them from their classmates. We have found that these characteristics will often make the task of teaching the gifted an extremely rewarding experience. However, at times these same traits become obstacles to teaching. The following paragraphs provide a brief outline of the characteristics common to gifted students according to our observations.

1. *Verbal proficiency.* Gifted students are very adept at expressing themselves orally and have command of an extensive vocabulary. They enjoy oral work and excel at it. They are intrigued by vocabulary, are fluent in their own language, and strive to become so in the target language. They use the foreign language dictionary continually to increase vocabulary.

2. *Awareness and power of observation.* Gifted students are extremely aware of events on the national and international scene. They enjoy bringing their observations into the classroom and discussing them with the teacher and other students. Articles appearing in periodicals or special programs broadcast through the media are also discussed with enthusiasm.

3. *Curiosity and inquisitiveness.* Because they are unafraid and eager to explore the unknown, gifted students enjoy using their mind. They love research and have a willingness to examine the unusual; moreover, they are not satisfied with learning only the facts but must also know reasons for particular developments.

4. *Independence.* Gifted students work best independently. This characteristic sometimes leads to a dislike or refusal to work in groups

or to share materials, which stands in stark contrast to the next characteristic.

5. *Friendliness and outgoing personality.* Because of oral proficiency and interest in so many varied subjects, gifted youngsters may well be very popular, if not the most popular, students in the classroom. On the other hand, these characteristics, in conjunction with the fact that they often see or do things somewhat differently than the others, may more readily identify gifted students as "different" and may result in the other students labeling them as "eggheads," "brains," or "social outcasts."

6. *Lack of discipline.* Due to the lack of challenge, motivation, and stimulation in school, many of the gifted students' study habits are undisciplined. They often overlook directions, fail to do routine assignments (or do them at the last minute), write quickly and poorly, do not pay attention in class, and lack good study habits. They pay little attention to details. Mistakes are usually careless in nature; they are not necessarily caused by a lack of knowledge.

7. *Competitiveness.* Competition with peers for grades and for attention from peers or the teacher is very keen. Gifted students regard as very important competition for grades with fellow students.

8. *Self-criticism, frustration, intolerance of failure.* Gifted students are very critical of their inability to perform to the standard they set for themselves. They are easily frustrated or angered by a temporary failure to understand a concept or by inability to put a particular idea to use. Similarly, this frustration carries over into an apparent inability to tolerate or understand students less gifted than they. Open criticism of another student is quite common. The lack of ability to express themselves adequately in the beginning stages of foreign language study is very frustrating and potentially quite damaging.

9. *Opinionated and logical.* In formulating a solution or an opinion, gifted students explore all possibilities and usually arrive at the most logical conclusion. Differing or less logical solutions and opinions are thus "ridiculous" or "incorrect." To them, their solution or opinion is the most logical and is, therefore, the only one.

10. *Goal directed.* Although gifted students have a low frustration level, they are very goal directed and will pursue any problem until

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they have, on their own, arrived at the correct answer, the grade of "A," or some other goal. Attempts to move to other topics before that goal is reached are resented.

11. *Dislike for routine and drill.* After once grasping a concept, drilling it through oral or written exercises is boring, unnecessary, and a waste of time in the eyes of gifted students. This fact often accounts for their failure to do assignments and for their dislike of workbook exercises, oral drills, etc.

In addition to the above problems that gifted students face, they must also contend with the fact that they are not necessarily equally gifted in all areas of study simply because they qualify for a special section of a foreign language class. They may have lesser abilities in math or science, for example. Dealing with the frustrations they feel in other subject areas is a difficult task. Teachers can help gifted students with these problems only if they remember one important fact: whether classified as gifted, challenge, academically talented, or TAG (talented and gifted), students are individuals and must be treated as such by any teacher.

Teacher Adjustment

We have found that we, as teachers, must make adjustments in our teaching methods when working with gifted students. We had to develop high expectations concerning student achievement. A normal day's activities were but a beginning for our academically talented students, who have much less need for repetition of explanations and who become quite frustrated with continuous drill. It is, therefore, necessary to accelerate the pace of teaching and to have several different methods of practicing a new concept. Teachers must continually remind themselves that, as soon as the challenge is gone from an activity, the student gets bored. Immediate application of vocabulary rather than rote memorization is essential. The smaller size of a gifted class lends itself to individual attention and real communication, but it also contributes to the accelerated pace.

Flexibility is a must. Discussion is a favorite activity of these students. As mentioned above, the gifted are extremely aware of current events, are verbally proficient, and will continually initiate discussion

about something they have just heard, read, or seen pertaining to the country being studied. This curiosity in turn leads to more questions about culture and geography.

We found working with the gifted to be stimulating, but also time consuming. We discovered we had to be well prepared. In addition to keeping abreast of current developments on the international scene, we had to write and revise the initial course of study, continually create supplemental material, and also devise fresh strategies to stimulate conversation in the foreign language.

Even as the gifted must learn to cope with frustrations and problems, so must the teacher come face to face with these difficulties. As this was the first time we had worked only with groups of academically talented students, we were never sure just what to expect from them. Were we challenging them? Asking too much? Was the pace *too* fast? Should we spend more time on drill and repetition? Force them to do drills? These and other questions plagued us constantly. We experienced frustration when finding our questions unanswered and when trying to get the students to drill or to be more careful on written work. As unsettling as the experience of having some students criticize others was, it taught us to understand and cope with gifted students and their problems.

Teachers must learn to use the term "gifted" very carefully. Making students understand that being gifted does not make them strange, but without overemphasizing their gift to the point of egotism, is a difficult task. Teachers must find a solution, however, since the students' self-image definitely depends on the attitude shown by the teacher. One method used to practice the foreign language and to get students to understand themselves better is the use of real communication strategies.

Strategies and Activities

Teaching strategies that emphasize personal choice, oral communication, and reflective listening and thinking in the foreign language have proven successful in gifted classes. Four such teaching strategies follow.

1. *What Am I?* (Level one). *Objective:* to have students describe themselves as an imaginary object and respond to questions from others.

Linguistic focus: forms of *to be. Skill focus:* listening, speaking, yes/no questioning. *Procedure:* (a) students will choose an object (either imaginary or which can be seen in the room—e.g., a coat); (b) they will give three statements to describe themselves—e.g., "I have one color." "I am long." "I am warm and dry"; (c) other students will ask questions that can be answered by yes or no and will try to guess what object is being portrayed. *Components:* previously developed vocabulary of nouns and adjectives.

2. *Occupational Decision* (Levels One and Two). *Objective:* to share occupational preferences. *Linguistic focus:* verbs *to be, to become;* vocabulary concerning occupations. *Skill focus:* speaking, listening. *Procedure:* (a) From a list in the target language the student will select a preferred occupation. If a preference is not included in the list of suggestions, students may supply it; (b) Each student will find a partner to question in the class. Using the verb *to be,* each will seek to discover the partner's occupational preference and then share their own. For example, "What are you going to be? I am going to be a teacher"; (c) Students will then report to the rest of the class what their partner's occupational preference is. For example, "Helmut wants to be a teacher." *Components:* questions and answers. "What are you going to be?" "I'm going to be a _____." "He or she is going to become a _____." Vocabulary list of occupations.

3. *To Have or Have Not* (Levels One and Two). *Objectives:* using vocabulary and grammatical forms learned to determine if an object is in the box. *Grammatical focus:* verb *to have,* question formation. *Skill focus:* speaking, listening, word order formation. *Procedure:* (a) Student should be familiar with the conjugation of *to have.* They take the box and may or may not put an object from the room inside it; (b) Student tells class or group, "I have something in the box." (c) The group or class questions student about the object. For example, "Does it have a point?" "Is it long?" (d) Student may be telling the truth or may have nothing in the box. The class or group must determine the truth.

4. *Descriptive Cognates* (Level One). *Objective:* given a list of cognates the students will describe themselves on paper using the cognates. *Linguistic focus:* vocabulary (cognates), verb *to be. Skill focus:* writing, speaking. *Procedure:* (a) each student writes a brief description

of him or herself using the list of cognates provided; (b) the teacher collects the descriptions and randomly chooses a description to be read aloud. The students will then be asked to identify that person. *Variations:* students may choose to describe any other person in the classroom. *Components:* list of cognates, paper, pencils. Sample list of cognates (others may be added to fit language): impossible / difficult / interesting / violent / shy / important / romantic / stupid / active / famous / intelligent / terrible / horrible / ridiculous / practical / impractical / ambitious / nervous / aggressive / passive / artistic / creative / studious / generous / brilliant / quiet / sincere / insincere / timid / obedient / cruel.

As can be seen from the above examples, these strategies lend themselves well to the special problems of the gifted foreign language class. They stress the positive, challenge the students to use the new language, provide an alternative to drill, increase vocabulary, and provide individual and group work that teaches the students about themselves and their classmates.

In the classroom the teacher may deviate from a regular format by using simple techniques that invite open-ended responses from the students. For example, the teacher may give the students a series of grammatically correct sentences and ask them to explain the reason why they are correct, or have them explain what the grammatical rule is. Another simple idea to stimulate thinking and the forming of logical sentences in the language is for the teacher to take a cartoon strip from the comic section of the newspaper. The balloons are covered with a paper to block out the dialogue. A transparency may be made of the sequences, leaving the balloons to be completed by the students. Responses to the same story may be endless.

Other individual projects and group activities, when handled properly, have proven successful in the foreign language classroom of the gifted student. One of the most stimulating projects for these students is to have them create a foreign language of their own. Some students have watched the "Mork and Mindy" television show and have observed language difficulties and cultural differences experienced by the alien. Perhaps the class could write its own script about the difficulties that Mork might encounter in the target language and culture. The *Zarabanda* and *Guten Tag* television shows have also been used successfully,

although related activities had to be developed to use the vocabulary learned. The *Scholastic* magazines have been used with success. Since these students tend to be highly creative, they enjoy developing their own foreign language games, which teachers can then utilize in other classes.

Gifted students may also help to motivate others in the school by being in charge of an all-school International Week. Such activities may include sponsoring a teacher exchange among the language classes for a few days, inviting American Field Service students or native speakers to the classroom, having a poster or T-shirt design contest, and sponsoring an international dinner for students, faculty, and parents.

Gifted students are not only highly motivated and enthusiastic but also very creative. They will often generate many ideas that can be used with the entire class. From a teacher's point of view, the gifted classes are both a challenge and a joy.

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Foreign Languages and the Total Curriculum:
Exploring Alternative Basics

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Foreign language teachers who have survived the "great massacre" of foreign language personnel and programs (1970–74) may have reason to be cheerfully optimistic again. Some recent statistics show the stabilization and, in a few cases, increase of foreign language enrollments since the radical decline of the early seventies.[1] Outside the confines of our profession, the recently appointed President's Commisssion on Foreign Language and International Studies seems to be indicative of new and welcome allies on a national level. The Commission's chairman, James A. Perkins, echoes the language teacher's dismay over dropping enrollments when he notes that the commission grew out of a concern that American capabilities in languages and international understanding were declining at the very time when the overseas responsibilities of the United States were increasing.[2]

In an indirect way, the program cuts, lack of positions for foreign language teachers, and curriculum reassessments have perhaps been beneficial to language departments. The quality of faculties has probably improved through selective pruning and grafting; the potential for change and improvement should be greater than ever before; and, the much-touted back-to-basics movement has worked its way up the educational ladder to the point where its influence is finally beginning to be felt at the university level as the implementation of core curricula often includes a foreign language component.

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The basics have been redefined, however, in terms of current educational needs. Consequently, the long awaited optimism our profession may now feel must not lull it into complacency. Our responsiveness to the needs of the present and the future will determine our viability in the next decade. Wiley and Davidheiser put it succinctly when they state that the "profession needs more than cognizance of the problem [promotion of foreign language study] and more than a polite skepticism about trends in American education."[3] Another good reason for reassessing our aims and approaches is that overall enrollment projections indicate that the number of 18-year-old Americans will decline nearly 20 percent during the 1980s.[4]

Our profession does have reason to be optimistic, but certainly none for blind optimism. Roland Champagne's advice that language departments strive for the integration of foreign language studies into the university curriculum is well worth heeding: "Providing undergraduate students with basic language skills must also entail a follow-up by providing heuristic models for the application of these skills to other areas."[5] The goal of the present paper is to explore several ways in which foreign language professionals could reach out into four other curricular areas: business, music, film, and interdisciplinary studies. Each area is, if not interdisciplinary, at least cross-disciplinary. This proposal makes some specific demands on the teacher, because our suggestions require a fundamental evaluation of competency and interests, a readjustment of teaching strategies, and often a major change in the organizational structure of courses and even departments. Obviously, not every individual can teach all aspects of a curriculum. There should be no question of abandoning one's area of expertise; rather, the challenge at hand is to discover new ways to approach and to enlarge upon that expertise.

Business and Foreign Languages

The recent move to diversify traditional foreign language offerings has usually been greeted enthusiastically by students concerned about the relevance of their course work to future careers. College students normally realize that business firms probably will not hire them solely on the basis of language skills. But, a specialization in business adminis-

tration, for example, coupled with a minor in foreign languages, is an attractive credential for the prospective employee interested in working for multinational corporations.

Foreign language departments should be considering business-related language courses geared to students in international commerce as well as to their own majors in the applied track. Such courses are also beneficial to those preparing for careers in the growing tourism industry: travel agents, hotel, restaurant, and airline personnel. What follows is an outline for a course in "business French," although the syllabus could be easily adapted for other foreign languages. Faculty retraining in current commercial practices would be minimal: one could enroll as a special student for summer work on any of a number of American campuses that offer the degree of Master of International Management or take short courses available in Montreal and France.

Prerequisites and Aims

The business French course described below necessitates successful completion of beginning college French. Before enrolling, students should have a solid background in grammatical structures and an active knowledge of basic vocabulary. As a second-semester, intermediate-level class, Business French could be offered on a separate track—an option in addition to the traditional intermediate-level class in literary or cultural readings. This new course itself could serve as a prerequisite to one in advanced business French or directed independent readings.

The course should be designed to convey information in French about basic commercial procedures and to point out contrasting elements of American and French business practices. All four basic skills would be emphasized to encourage students to become fluent in speaking and understanding French, to increase their active vocabulary by the inclusion of new commercial terms, to become adept at translation into English or French business correspondence, and to improve writing skills through the composition of some model letters in French.

Content and Format

Keeping in mind the intermediate level of the course, the instructor should spend the first week reviewing material that will play a signifi-

cant role in business French; dates, numbers, and expressions of time must be fully mastered. Students need practice throughout the semester in working with all units of the metric system and with currency exchange rates. Simple conversion exercises could be presented using French pronunciation for various international monetary units. Other introductory material could include a short unit on world geography with emphasis on French names for countries and major cities. Vocabulary pertaining to ordinary office equipment could also be introduced very early in the course.

Once this material has been presented, the rest of the syllabus could be organized into seven or eight different units, with topics graded in increasing difficulty. The first unit might be devoted to the terminology of communications with a short lecture given in French on the unique functions of the *Postes et Télécommunications*. Students would learn various polite rejoinders for telephone conversations ("Ne quittez pas," "Je vous écoute"), and then could use doubletrack tapes in the language laboratory to answer the telephone "operator" on the recorded tape. In studying the French postal system, students would address envelopes and practice writing abbreviated messages in French for telegrams. With no exact American counterpart, the *Compte de chèques postaux* (CCP) should be thoroughly explained and then later discussed in connection with bank checking accounts, since it is found on business letterheads and is frequently used as a means of payment in business transactions. Informative brochures on long distance calls and postage rates, as well as money order and telegram forms are easily available from any post office abroad and could be distributed in class.

In order to make the newly acquired vocabulary an active part of the students' conversational skills, several related role-playing situations could be interspersed throughout the semester to simulate conversations an American would have upon arriving in Paris for an international congress. The "businessperson" could telegram arrival time, confirm hotel accommodations by telephone, arrange for car rental, exchange currency, order meals, and the like.

A large portion of class time would be devoted to commercial correspondence, emphasizing three areas: (1) familiarization with French correspondence formulas and letter format; (2) letter writing in

French; and (3) translation into English. By studying models of French business letters, students would pinpoint and memorize typical official business jargon. To supplement material in writing manuals, the instructor is encouraged to compile a personal file of authentic correspondence from French companies. Frequent practice in translating French letters into English will insure student comprehension. At the conclusion of this unit, students should be expected to compose simple business letters in French, covering all phases of transactions.

By focusing on conveying information orally and in writing at the same time, a unit on employment possibilities could begin by having students decipher job announcements in classified advertising. French weeklies like *Le Point, L'Express,* and *Le Nouvel Observateur* provide ample source materials in their *offres d'emploi.* After familiarization with personnel vocabulary (O.S., *chef de service, cadre,* P.D.G.), students could practice expanding the advertisements into full-page job descriptions. Other class assignments might include writing a *curriculum vitae* in French and acting out a job interview.

More difficult topics such as transportation, the French economy, labor relations, and banking institutions would best be treated in lecture form, using material from contemporary French civilization textbooks and magazines. A copy of *Faits et Chiffres,* published annually by *Le Nouvel Observateur,* furnishes current statistics on the French economy. To vary the format and check oral comprehension at the same time, a test used in the *licence d'anglais* classes at French universities could be adapted here. Students hear recorded versions of the French lectures in the language lab and then write short summaries in English of what they have heard.

Choice of Materials

Since most business textbooks are still destined for either Canadian and British readers or for French students learning English, it might be beneficial not to be dependent on one text, and, instead, be forced continually to collect materials on current business practices. Instructors should take advantage of the many brochures available from French banks, savings and loan associations, and government offices and then distribute them in class or use them as vocabulary source materials. Other classroom aids may include the introductory pages of a *Bottin,* a

Chaix (shows SNCF timetables), and a catalog for office equipment. The instructor could furnish lists of common acronyms (EDF, PSU, CGT, etc.)[6] and their meanings and names of American companies in France. The U.S. government documents service is another source of materials.[7]

These suggestions for a business French syllabus are based in large part on the everyday situations encountered by foreigners in France. The course material should be presented in such a way as to point out the small and seemingly insignificant cultural differences that are paramount to understanding the workings of another country.

Music and Foreign Languages

"Make foreign languages sing!" sounds like the description of an affective learning activity for the classroom. It is not, but it is one of the challenges to a foreign language teacher who seeks direction for the expansion of the program into different areas. It is also an attempt to respond positively to the ever-increasing demands of pragmatic students for relevance and practicality in their education. The following will explain the *who* and the *how* of the practical relationship between foreign languages and music.

Who?

Language teachers too rarely consider that they possess skills (in addition to those used for translating) that could be valuable to various professions. However, a knowledge of applied phonetics is virtually basic to any serious involvement with vocal music. Applied phonetics (the substitution of phonetically meaningful symbols for orthographic combinations) is also a routine component of the foreign language teacher's training.

Most colleges as well as high schools offer vocal training to several groups of students: prospective music education majors, vocal majors, music-theater majors, and students just interested in learning how to sing. All of these—from the singer bound for an operatic career to the hobbyist—are likely to be in genuine need, at some time or another, of the foreign language teacher's expertise in applied phonetics. Most college voice professors will readily admit their insecurity in coaching

three languages (Italian, French, and German) and will be pleased to capitalize on an expert's knowledge. Otherwise, as they well realize, they could deny themselves and their students some of the interesting vocal repertory that has not been translated into English: namely, French and Italian art songs and German *Lieder*.

In spite of the apparent need for special training, many music/voice students have neither time nor desire for a four-year program to master two languages. Many content themselves with a knowledge of one language, even though much of the vocal music they prepare for lessons and/or recitals is in another language. Consequently, the kind of course that will interest most music students is one in which previous knowledge of that language is *not* required.[8] This notion is very difficult for language teachers to accept but is very important for this kind of service course. Teaching for meaning here is superseded by teaching pronunciation and phonetic rules. The frustrations this limitation produces are actually less frequent than might be anticipated. Furthermore, there is often a benefit: many students are not satisfied to remain on the surface of a language whose pronunciation they have mastered, and will rearrange their schedules in order to enroll in regular language classes.

The student now identified, let us discuss the teacher. French or German teachers who have always felt confident explaining to beginning students that the written vowel combination "au" is pronounced [o] or [au] are already teaching applied phonetics in their classrooms. However, all language teachers will not necessarily want to become involved in this area. Although such a course does not demand formal vocal training on the part of the teacher, it does require more than a passing interest in vocal music and its problems, and a working knowledge of phonetics, orthoëpy, and the relationships between orthography and pronunciation. The teacher must also acquire an understanding of the differences between the spoken and sung language. Several introductory books on the art of singing are available (see note 20) and should be consulted by the prospective teacher.

How?

In order to succeed in convincing music colleagues that they need the skills of the foreign language teacher, the goals of the course must be

clearly defined. They are to teach: (1) accurate sound production; (2) the relationship between sounds and their phonetic symbols; and (3) the relationships between the written language and phonetic symbols. One can promise realistically that in one semester (with two class meetings per week), motivated students will master pronunciation and the basic rules of applied phonetics; that they will be able to perform at least one song proficiently in the target language; and that students will be able to do basic phonetic transcriptions. The musical score eliminates many, if not all, problems of diction, intonation, and even pronunciation (in French, problems with the mute "e"), and therefore brings into reach what would otherwise be unattainable goals.

Elaborate equipment is not necessary, but access to a piano (and a student willing to accompany), a phonograph, and some operatic recordings are very helpful. Choosing a text might be difficult, as few exist which do not presuppose a knowledge of the language.

The format of such a course for French would be divided into four main parts. First, the presentation of individual sounds: the oral and nasal vowels, semivowels, and consonants. The introduction of each sound must be accompanied by choral and individual repetitions, by the phonetic symbol that represents it, and by the most common written spellings of that sound. The second part of the course treats sound in context—words. Here students must have a working knowledge of the correspondence between how the sounds are written and how they are pronounced. Written exercises for practice in transcribing should be plentiful at this stage, as should class time devoted to developing pronunciation skills. In French, this is the moment for a discussion of syllabification, silent final consonants, and the influence of the final mute "e." The third part of the course treats words in a context. French teachers will want to discuss some of the basic rules for liaison (in singing, whenever the music allows it). At this point the class should begin singing melodically simple songs, concentrating on correct pronunciation rather than correct notes. Folk songs are particularly appropriate: "Sur le pont d'Avignon" for nasal vowels, "Frère Jacques" and "Le Roi a fait battre tambour" for oral vowels, "Le Bois du rossignolet" for the trilled "r" and oral vowels, and so on.

The final segment of the course should constantly review what has preceded, but also introduce listening and individual performance. It

is helpful to select recordings by different artists of the same aria or art song (especially if one is a native speaker and the other is not) and compare them. Students should analyze the libretto phonetically and then listen to it for pronunciation mistakes. Use of the language laboratory facilities make out-of-class listening assignments possible. The capstone of the course is the student's own performance of a song or songs selected in conjunction with the voice teacher. Correct phonetic transcription of the selection is a prerequisite for performance. The actual performance can be done as a class exercise, which provides the student with another performance opportunity, or as an individual exercise. An ambitious class might be interested in listening to an entire operatic recording or watching a live or televised operatic performance while following the score. In any case, the successful combination of music and foreign languages is possible.

Film and Foreign Languages

Film courses are largely a result of the academic and cultural revolutions of the 1960s. In 1970, *Esquire* magazine ran a cover showing a touched-up photograph of St. Patrick's Cathedral with a marquee advertising *Easy Rider*. The caption to this picture was "The New Movies: Faith of Our Children." During this period, the media emphasized the cultural significance of comic books, rock 'n' roll, drugs, and witchcraft, and all of these manifestations of popular culture eventually worked their way into the curriculum. But film studies are among the few today that still have a secure place in the catalog. Film studies have changed, too. For some time, New York University, UCLA, and other institutions had been offering college credit to students who watched Hitchcock films frame by frame and then took to the streets to capture their own versions of reality on film. During the last decade, few schools would have denied a student the right to study Orson Welles on an equal footing with Chaucer. Foreign language teachers should take advantage of the acceptance of film studies, especially today when, despite budgetary limitations, video hardware to facilitate film showings is proliferating in schools.

Esquire's cover was right: students are interested in film. Many students who may be reluctant to study a foreign language will not

have the same reservations about studying film. For any teacher with an eye on enrollments, this aspect cannot be overstated. Once students have ventured into a class taught by a language specialist, and once they have been introduced to the richness of another culture by means of its films, their resistance to foreign language study can be substantially reduced.

At the same time, students who already know a foreign language can benefit enormously from viewing and discussing films in the language they are studying. Not only does the screening room provide an attractive alternative to the language lab as a place for hearing dialogue in the target language, studying films provides the student with an excellent view of the culture of the target country. In addition to the linguistic and cultural benefits of studying film, literature teachers as well have potential rewards in cinema study. Much can be gained from a comparative study of Fritz Lang's Dr. Mabuse films and Thomas Mann's *Felix Krull,* or Marcel Carnés *Les Enfants du Paradis* and Balzac's novels. Discussions of more of these fortuitous pairs—Bunuel and Lorca, Renoir and Musset, Eisenstein and Lenin, Antonioni and Pavese—provide valuable insight into both film and literature. Of course, numerous films based on novels can also provide material for study.[9]

For those who do not feel prepared to handle film in a classroom situation, there is a rapidly growing and increasingly accessible bibliography of critical writings on film.[10] One must be aware that much film criticism is devoted to the technical aspects of film-making, however. And the resultant jargon can become discouraging if one does not understand terms such as "découpage," "kenworthy," and "pixillation." The more egregious excesses in the critical language of the new generation of semiotic critics are even more disheartening to the novice than is traditional film criticism. Although it is certainly worthwhile to know about the sophisticated cinematographic style of Jean Renoir in *La Règle du jeu,* it is hardly essential to an understanding of the even more sophisticated portrait of pre-war French society in that superb film. Furthermore, many fine critics ignore camera work and discuss films much as they would literature.

Institutions need not establish an entire film studies program in order to teach a course with one to twenty films in it. Show Cocteau's

Beauty and the Beast to a beginning French class, or conduct a seminar in the neorealist movement in Italy using several films by Rossellini, De Sica, Pasolini, and Fellini in conjunction with literary texts. One can also teach a film course in a language department and allow nonmajors to take it for credit in other departments (such as mass communications, comparative literature, or theatre). All it takes is cooperation between departments.

New video tape recorders have substantially reduced the mechanical problems of showing a film to students. There is even a video-cassette-of-the-month club that recently offered Charlie Chaplin's *Modern Times* as its first selection.[11] Finally, the matter of financing a film program is only a serious problem for those on the tightest of budgets. Numerous agencies rent first-rate, subtitled foreign films for $50 or less.[12] Many offer special discounts if several films are ordered or if no admission is charged. Prints of films can be purchased as well as rented from these organizations. The price is right; the hardware is available; student interest is high. Now is the time for a meaningful relationship between language teachers and film studies, whether it be a love match or a marriage of convenience.

Interdisciplinary Studies

Within every foreign language department there are faculty members who do not wish to move outside the realm of language and literature. After all, these areas are the foundations of their training. Henry Remak points out a danger in interdisciplinarity: "We are presently engulfed by a wave of amateurism in this country which extends into the teaching of courses and seminars by people who are not fully qualified to do so."[13] Indeed, in any effort to promote our discipline, we must not lose sight of our primary goal—providing a sound education. Today's foreign language teacher, however, should seek to exploit every avenue of interdepartmental exchange and cooperation. This may be accomplished in several different ways, from simple exchanges to development of new courses to reorganization of the entire curriculum.

Guest Lecturers

Teachers from other disciplines should be invited to the foreign language class; language teachers can also volunteer their own services to

appropriate classes outside their home department. An historian's or an artist's perspective can enrich literary study, for example, just as a literary background is valuable in the study of history or of art. A dramatic analysis of a play director is often quite different from that of the literary analyst. If an English department offers classes in world literature, the French teacher should volunteer to present *Madame Bovary;* the Spanish teacher, *Don Quixote;* the German teacher, *Faust.* For some students, such a guest lecturer may be as close as they ever come to a foreign language teacher. Other students might even be convinced to take a language if they could see what language teachers are capable of doing. We all know that foreign languages are an important element of the curricular structure: we must become more assertive in demonstrating that conviction.

New Courses

Curricular changes should attempt to accomplish more than a renaming of old courses. The students' needs and desires must be considered. As Stanley Werbow notes, "We will be expected, and justifiably so, to relate those literary and cultural documents that we teach to the lives of these students and of the community at large."[14]

Teachers of literature ought to consider two options. One of them, which does not demand a change in basic materials, does require an adjustment of focus. Kolbert has suggested that reappraisal of course offerings take cognizance of the fact that literature is more than *belles-lettres:* "Students interested mainly in the social sciences can be made to accept an often concealed fact of literary history: namely, that literary texts are not only art but also sociology, geography, history, anthropology, science, politics, and philosophy. We must use literature as a primary source of knowledge and as an important resource for the understanding of culture and civilization."[15]

The literature teacher's other sacred cow—teaching in English—should also be positively reviewed as an option. Literature courses in translation, too often criticized for being pale imitations of their more demanding parallels in the target language, do have advantages. They allow more students to be exposed to an important humanist, the foreign language teacher, and they complement students' knowledge. Likewise, culture courses taught in English are accessible to more students than are courses restricted by a language barrier.

Nontraditional courses, which may be entirely within the areas of language, literature, and culture, can be valuable curricular additions.[16] Keller and Ferguson report success with a "Cultural Introduction to Foreign Languages" dealing with the communication process and providing insights into the cultures in which other languages are spoken.[17] Classes in Greek and Latin etymology can often attract large enrollments, especially students who plan careers in law, medicine, or the sciences. Short courses with a practical bent such as "Everyday French" or "Italian for Tourists" are flourishing, providing a complete departure from the usual four-semester love-it-or-leave-it approach. Curricula need constant attention and revision, not in order to stay abreast of the latest vacuous trends, but to remain in touch with the ever-changing demands of reality.

Team Teaching

One of the most exciting possibilities for change in the modern curriculum is interdisciplinarity through team teaching. Just as the various disciplines can be bridged through special guest lecturers, so can those disciplines be allied more closely by development of team-taught courses.[18]

English departments offer rich potential, since English teachers, like those in foreign languages, are well qualified in literature and linguistics. Courses in comparative literature might be developed. Studies of a particular genre or a movement, for example, are enhanced by a multiple perspective. Too, source studies and comparisons of literary figures can be accomplished in greater depth when more than one point of view is represented. Thematically oriented literature classes can be developed or enriched. Historically, Europe and America have shared millions of citizens. Immigrant literature is perhaps best understood when presented not by an English teacher alone, but in conjunction with the old-world understanding of a foreign language teacher. A "Psychology in Literature" course could offer character analyses that a literature teacher alone could probably not supply. Philosophy and literature studies can be easily paired, with the philosopher concentrating on theory and meaning, the literature teacher dealing primarily with creative realization. Music, art, and literature can be united in an aesthetic study of a particular period or movement.

New Programs and Directions

As departmental barriers are eliminated, whole new programs may emerge. Culture courses can lead to formation of area studies programs and institutes, a concept cited by Fryer as holding great promise for foreign language departments.[19] Humanities programs offer almost endless possibilities of curricular readjustment and innovation. In such a program at the University of South Dakota, for example, sections of freshman composition are staffed by members of the Classics, English, and Modern Languages Departments. The assumption is that members of each of these departments are trained to teach verbal skills, including English language usage and organizational writing. Literary selections are used to illustrate common themes of study, but the selections themselves are drawn from English, American, classical, or foreign literature, depending upon the specialization of the instructor. The important element is that such a program recognizes and profits from the fact that the foreign language teacher is not *merely* a foreign language teacher.

The last decade has been difficult, but its problems have brought certain side benefits. During this period of shrinking enrollments, faculty dismissals, and program cancellations, the foreign language teaching profession has embarked upon a course of valuable introspection and has faced its challenges with a good deal of positive commitment. But we must determine to remain in the avant garde of professional growth, not to become complacent and self-satisfied. We already know the value of our product. Our mission now must be to demonstrate that we cannot be isolated from the mainstream of progressive education. Foreign languages are, and must remain, at the core of the basic curriculum.[20]

Notes

1. "Report of the Task Force on the Commonly Taught Languages," *ADFL Bulletin*, 10, i(1978), pp. 1–7.
2. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, 2 Oct. 1978, p. 19.
3. Marion E. Wiley and James C. Davidheiser, "Interim Measures for the Promotion of Foreign Language Study," *ADFL Bulletin*, 9, iv(1978), p. 40.
4. Jack Magarrell, "The Enrollment Roller Coaster: Colleges Fear the Big Dip," *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, 5 Sept. 1978, p. 1.
5. "Responding to the Challenge of Survival: Multidisciplinary Language Courses," *Foreign Language Annals*, 11(1978), p. 81.

6. For a list of common abbreviations and their meanings, see Pierre Trescases, "Remarques sur quelques abréviations: la prolifération des sigles en français contemporain," *French Review*, 44(1976), pp. 703–12.
7. Edward Rossmann, "U.S. Government Publications: A Source for the CIV Teacher," *French Review*, 49 (1976), pp. 713–16.
8. For a description of a course designed for students with language preparation, see Robert E. Anderson, "Foreign Language Study and the Voice Major: A Model Course in French for Singers," *French Review*, 49(1976), pp. 374–80.
9. An excellent list appears in Robert M. Webster, "A Guide to Feature Films Adapted from Novels," *French Review*, 52(1978), pp. 208–14.
10. See James Monaco, *How to Read a Film* (New York: Oxford Univ. Press, 1977), pp. 442–66, for a basic film library and bibliography of bibliographies. See also Klaus Phillips, "Teaching a Course in the German Cinema," *Modern Language Journal*, 62(1978), pp. 414–19, which includes a brief bibliography.
11. Video Club of America, 23434 Industrial Park Court, Farmington Hills, Michigan 48024.
12. For addresses of rental agencies, see Webster (note 9 above).
13. Henry H. H. Remak, "Foreign Languages and Literatures in the Free Market Curriculum," *ADFL Bulletin*, 2,iii(1971), pp. 21–22.
14. Stanley N. Werbow, "Foreign Languages and Beyond," *ADFL Bulletin*, 9,ii(1977), p. 14.
15. Jack Kolbert, "Preserving the Traditional Languages," *ADFL Bulletin*, 9,ii(1977), p. 27.
16. See Warren C. Born and Kathryn Buck, *Options for the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Literatures, and Cultures* (New York: ACTFL, 1978).
17. Howard H. Keller and John W. Ferguson, "Toward the Development of an Interdisciplinary Introduction to Foreign Languages: A Curriculum Model," *ADFL Bulletin*, 7, i(1975), pp. 33–35.
18. See *Report on Teaching, 6: Interdisciplinary Studies, Change Magazine*, 10,vii(1978).
19. T. Bruce Fryer, "Free to Explore: Curricular Developments," in *Perspective: A New Freedom*, ed. Gilbert A. Jarvis (Skokie, Ill.: National Textbook Co., 1975), p. 37.
20. Teachers interested in attempting some or all of the suggestions put forth in this essay might find the following materials of interest. Business: James Coveney et al., *Glossary of French and English Management Terms* (London: Longman, 1972); Max Dany et al., *Le Français des hommes d'affaires* (Paris: Hachette, 1975); Jean-Yves Dournon, *La Correspondance pratique* (Paris: Livre de Poche, 1977); M. M. Lentz et al., *French in the Office* (London: Longman, 1967); Ivan de Renty, *Lexique de l'anglais des affaires* (Paris: Livre de Poche, 1974). Music: Kurt Adler, *The Art of Accompanying and Coaching* (Minneapolis: Univ. of Minnesota Press, 1965); Ralph Errolle, *Italian Diction for Singers*, 3rd ed. (Boulder, Col.: Pruett, 1963); May Laird-Brown, *Singer's French* (New York: Dutton, 1926); Leanne Wierenga, *French Diction for Singers: A Phonetics Workbook* (New York: Kenyon, 1977); Eva Wilcke, *German Diction in Singing*, trans. ed. Bainbridge Crist (New York: Dutton, 1930).

8
Utilizing Class Time in Foreign Language Instruction

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Competence in a foreign language is not often easily achieved. Indeed, language acquisition is a lengthy process, and for many students enrolled in second language programs, fluency is never completely attained. Several explanations for this phenomenon come to mind: the relative difficulty of exposing students to the language in the quantities and settings found in the target culture; the limited time periods devoted in school to the subject matter; and the small amount of actual skill development in the target language during those class hours. The foreign language teacher has very little power over the first two limitations. Yet with regard to appropriate use of available class time, teachers obviously do have control. Teachers can work primarily in this domain to improve the language learning process and, hopefully, augment the numbers of those who can communicate fluently in the second language.

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The study reported here was undertaken to determine how teachers use class time in foreign language middle school and high school courses. The resulting information on length of time devoted to each language skill and on the relative amounts of teacher talk and student talk in English and in the target language provide insights into contemporary language learning conditions. The findings discussed have implications both for teachers and teacher trainers.

Methods

Twenty teachers participated in the study. They were from a variety of schools in southern Wisconsin and taught in areas that included upper middle to lower class neighborhoods, towns and cities, and different school sizes.[1] During a sixteen-week period, observational data were collected from these participants on 864 class sessions in middle and high school French, Spanish, and German. Frequency of teacher and student utterances was tallied for each language during each part of every lesson, and the type and duration of activity were also recorded.[2]

Results and Discussion

As an initial indication of amount of speaking done by teachers and by students during these several hundred observations, various proportions were calculated. As shown in Table I, English was used about 21 percent of the time (approximately 12 out of every 60 minutes) and the target language about 79 percent. These data seem to indicate that students are being exposed to a relatively large amount of the target language during classes; yet, the findings show that not all of the available time is actually being utilized for development of second language competencies. Put into a larger perspective, this proportion of talk in English may serve to break the "cultural island" created to encourage students to communicate exclusively in the target language. Accumulated over the course of the year, it appears that much time that might be devoted to enhancing language proficiency is not, in a certain sense, most effectively used.

Also of interest are the proportions of teacher talk and student talk to total utterances in each language. First, teachers spoke about 70 percent of the English used during the class hour, for approximately 15 percent of the total talk; while student talk in English represents the remaining 30 percent (6 percent of the total utterances). More important, however, is the finding that teachers make 61 percent of the utterances in the target language, while their students use it only 39 percent of the time it is spoken during each session. These data would indicate that teachers are responsible for about two thirds of the utterances regardless of the language and that students—individually, in

groups, or as a large group—are allowed decidedly briefer periods of time to express themselves despite their greater number and need. Further, results seem to show that teachers, who have mastered the fundamental language skills, spend more time practicing them than do students who have not as yet attained such competencies. While perhaps understandable, teachers are responsible for modeling, cuing, providing feedback, presenting listening comprehension stimuli, and explaining materials, all of which may be done in the target language without involving the class verbally. This apparent imbalance could be viewed as contributing to the phenomenon of many years of classes resulting in minimal competency. The conclusions drawn from data on particular activities and techniques that are conducive to increased student participation in the target language should be of help in alleviating this situation.

Table I.
Percent of English & the Target Language
Used by Teachers & by Students

Language/Use	*Percent*
English used by teachers and students	21
English used by teachers only	15
English used by students only	6
Target language used by teachers and students	79
Target language used by teachers only	48
Target language used by students only	31

The observational data collected from these class sessions provide information on time devoted to, and amount of language used for, each of the four foreign language skill areas—listening, speaking, reading, writing—as well as grammar and culture, and information concerning possible activities used during instruction in each. Results for each area are discussed below.

Listening

Although students are assumed to be working on listening skills during all portions of the class conducted in the target language, only activities directed specifically toward the development of auditory discrimination, word or sentence comprehension, and paragraph comprehen-

sion were considered to be listening activities for purposes of this study.[3] Approximately 2 percent of the total available time was devoted to the development of these skills.

Of the three listening activities noted, auditory discrimination was never presented. Oddly, such basic training in sound differentiation was not planned at all, especially at the introductory levels because the ability to hear differences is considered fundamental to skills in producing the sounds themselves.[4] Class time devoted to auditory training was thus divided between word, sentence, and paragraph comprehension, the former receiving nearly as many instances but only one third the number of minutes. This emphasis on the use of longer items in context perhaps reflects a more communicative use of language, instead of the drilling of isolated or meaningless utterances.

However, while teachers spoke considerably more than students during these activities (70 percent vs. 30 percent), the target language was used 92 percent of the time—about the average for classes as a whole. The high frequency of target language use, as well as the more passive nature of listening activities, would seem to suggest the use of such exercises as mental and physical breaks from faster-paced and more production-oriented speaking activities. Work on listening comprehension provides for a high level of exposure to the target language while requiring less active involvement on the part of the students and the teacher.

Table II.
Teaching of Listening Comprehension Skills

	Instances/Minutes		*Percent of Available Time*	
Percent of available time devoted to listening comprehension skills	16	165 of 7,600	2.0	
Use of listening activities				
Auditory Discrimination	0	0	0.0	
Word/sentence comprehension	7	51	0.7	
Paragraph comprehension	9	114	1.5	
Use of language:	Teacher English	Teacher Target Language	Student English	Student Target Language
	6%	72%	3%	19%

Speaking

Unlike the pattern of listening skills development, the teaching of speaking skills consumed about 24 percent of the available time. These overall figures reflect emphasis on pronunciation and conversational manipulation in the second language. The six activities seen as comprising instruction in speaking skills include: warm-ups, exercises on selected sounds, Gouin series, dialogues, guided conversation, and free conversation. Exercises on the production of isolated sounds were least frequently provided, reinforcing the belief that foreign language teachers place little emphasis on instruction in basic sound differentiation or production.

Free conversational activities were also infrequently scheduled, perhaps because of more pressing needs to cover particular material or due to the relatively small number of topics that most students can deal with in conversational settings. Difficulty in organizing similar activities and maintaining speech in the target language may also be factors. However, the limited number of speaking opportunities may explain the difficulty students have in dealing with language in the unstructured target environment. If the implementation of free-speaking activities could be made more feasible, perhaps greater communicative ability would result.

Of interest is the wide discrepancy in minutes and instances among alternative methods for presenting basic materials. Fifty instances (445 minutes of dialogue work) were recorded, while only 36 minutes during five sessions were devoted to Gouin series. The widespread use of dialogue stems most likely from the emphasis on it in most textbooks. The Gouin series, although often comparable in function, is apparently less widely known and rarely implemented.

Receiving the most time, although not the greatest number of instances, were guided conversational activities. Including question-answer and directed conversational work, these activities provide students with moderately controlled exposure to the language while eliminating many of the problem situations noted in the discussion of free classroom conversation. The remaining speaking activity, the warm-up, received slightly less time but was recorded considerably more often. The data suggest that the teachers observed began class sessions with a brief, but often humorous and easy oral introduction, rather than

moving directly into the planned materials. While not revealed in these numerical data, the warm-up activity seemed to help students recall their previous work in the target language and review the different sounds, while reestablishing rapport between the teacher and the class as a whole.

These six speaking activities were conducted 85 percent of the time in the target language, a high proportion, but not as high as that for work in listening comprehension skills. The overall percentages of language use and summaries of the findings discussed above are shown in Table III.

Table III.
Teaching of Speaking Skills

	Instances/Minutes	*Percent of Available Time*
Percent of available time devoted to speaking skills	237 1,846 of 7,600	24.0
Use of speaking activities		
Pronunciation drill	3 24	0.3
Free conversation	3 52	0.4
Gouin series	5 39	0.5
Dialogues	50 445	6.0
Guided conversation	64 671	9.0
Warm-ups	106 615	8.0

Use of language:	Teacher English	Teacher Target Language	Student English	Student Target Language
	8%	46%	3%	42%

Reading

Data for this study were collected on only one aspect of reading instruction—reading aloud from a text. Like listening, reading was infrequently taught in the middle and high schools observed. Six percent of total class time was recorded for such materials (see Table IV). While reading in the foreign language is primarily practiced outside of class, a surprisingly small amount of time is devoted to instruction in matching pronunciations with written forms.

Most of the speaking during reading instruction was in the target language (88 percent). While higher than the average for all activities (79 percent), most is teacher talk rather than student talk (60 percent

vs. 40 percent). Speech in English most often was related to corrections of student pronunciation or explication/translation of difficult vocabulary items or structures. Use of English, especially in these two areas, might be substantially reduced through increased use of auditory discrimination and pronunciation drills to solidify student pronunciation, by systematic cuing of various types of errors and by more varied devices for explaining vocabulary items using visual aids and the target language.

Table IV.
Teaching of Reading Skills

	Instances/Minutes	*Percent of Available Time*
Percent of available time devoted to reading skills/reading aloud	41 465 of 7,600	7.0

Use of language:	Teacher English	Teacher Target Language	Student English	Student Target Language
	7%	53%	4%	36%

Writing

Instruction in writing, the fourth audio-lingual skill, consumed about 2 percent of the total class time. Like listening and reading, this skill seems not to be emphasized in contemporary programs. Writing activities for which data were recorded included transcription/dictation, guided composition, and free composition.

As shown in Table V, these three activities received different amounts of emphasis. Free composition, like free conversation, was noted only once in an upper level class. While the organizational problems inherent in free conversational activities are not so salient here, they could also be of concern to teachers in free composition activities resulting in such conditions. Implications for students' ability in writing skills may be considered.

Highly structured dictation exercises received somewhat more attention, although still less than 1 percent of the available time. The use of such sound/symbol matching exercises seems to parallel the use of oral reading activities; that is, both these instances, which stress the relationships between sounds and letters, are given very little instructional time.

Finally, moderately structured or guided writing activity was the most frequently used—about 73 percent of the time devoted to writing and nearly 2 percent of the available time. Clearly, this style of instruction is preferred.

The amount of speaking in each language is shown in Table V. Although the writing activities had much less speech per minute than did exercises in the other five areas, this speech was not noticeably more or less in English, with the target language spoken about 79 percent of the time. It seems, then, that the introductory and explanatory remarks by teachers throughout their classes were also present in the same quantities here.

Table V.
Teaching of Writing Skills

	Instances	*Minutes*	*Percent of Available Time*
Percent of available time devoted to writing skills	19	173 of 7,600	2.0
Use of writing activities			
Free composition	1	5	0.1
Dictation	6	42	0.6
Guided composition	12	126	0.2

Use of language:	Teacher English	Teacher Target Language	Student English	Student Target Language
	11%	73%	4%	13%

Grammar

Skill instruction in the four basic skills—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—comprised about 33 percent of the available time, with the largest amount devoted to speaking activities. Most of the remaining class time was devoted to grammar instruction; that is, nearly one third of the available time was devoted to explanations of grammatical points: either deductively, using rules, or inductively, using pattern practices and subsequent drills or application exercises. The data indicate that such presentation of structures comprises the single most important facet of foreign language instruction.

Almost two thirds of the total speech during such periods was teacher talk, although only about 20 percent of this talk was in English. Still, student use of the target language totalled less than one third of

the available time. These observations show that such grammar presentations are typically teacher dominated and that those individuals who are learning the content actually spend little time actively dealing with it. An attempt might be made to shorten actual presentation time, vary oral drilling techniques so as to reduce the quantity of teacher talk, and allow for brief pair or small-group conversation periods during which students, having mastered the grammar point, might use it in less structured and more communicative settings. While allowing students greater practice time during the available hours, these techniques could also help teachers and students view grammar as a means of more quickly mastering a language rather than as the essence of the language itself.

Table VI.
Teaching of Grammar

	Instances/Minutes			*Percent of Available Time*
Percent of available time devoted to grammar	240	2,383 of 7,600		31
Use of language:	Teacher English	Teacher Target Language	Student English	Student Target Language
	14%	49%	5%	32%

Culture

Finally, cultural materials were included rather infrequently (7 percent of the available time). These materials presented daily patterns of living rather than dwelling on the arts or history. Also, emphasis on understanding varied aspects of the life and people a student might encounter when traveling in the target countries may influence cultural instruction.

Slightly more English (34 percent) was spoken during such activities, although the fact that almost two thirds of the presentations were conducted in the target language seems surprisingly high. It is possible that little culture was taught at the elementary levels or that the teachers observed had developed methods for establishing comprehension in the target language. In any case, teacher talk was greater in cultural instruction than in other areas. The findings on cultural activities are summarized in TableVII.

Table VII.
Teaching of Culture

	Instances/Minutes		*Percent of Available Time*	
Percent of available time devoted to culture	62	531	7.0	
Use of cultural activities				
Arts, history, people	4	60	0.8	
Anthropological culture	58	471	6.0	
Use of language:	Teacher English	Teacher Target Language	Student English	Student Target Language
	19%	52%	15%	14%

Other

In addition to instruction strictly devoted to the six language areas which consumed overall about 72 percent of the available time, a substantial proportion of class time was distributed (as shown in Table VIII) among several activities.

Table VIII.
Other Use of Class Time

	Instances/Minutes		*Percent of Available Time*	
Break activities—learning games, etc.	40	325	4.0	
Assigning/correcting homework	102	600	8.0	
Testing/evaluation	54	539	7.0	
Other activity	59	573	8.0	
Unallocated time—translation, management	—	152	1.0	
Use of language:	Teacher English	Teacher Target Language	Student English	Student Target Language
	33%	27%	18%	22%

Conclusions

In addition to the summaries and discussions presented to this point, several conclusions of a more general nature may be drawn. The

largest portion of available time in foreign language courses is devoted to the teaching of grammar. Since such structures are often the focal points of most textbook chapters, the centering of class activities around grammatical material seems to represent a reasonable approach. However, the use of the target language during such instruction is often teacher dominated, and the amount of English tends to be high. Making presentations clear in the smallest number of words is a challenge teachers should try to accept; by reducing the teacher role, the total time available to students is augmented.

The second largest block of time was devoted to varied activities—testing, correcting homework, games, and organizational functions. Again, use of English was high. Although one would not want to discontinue its use, teachers might reduce this quantity of time by dealing efficiently with the management tasks involved. That is, less time could be devoted to correcting homework by encouraging self-correction from posted responses to be briefly checked later by the teacher; taking of attendance might be done by a student during the first minutes of class, thereby freeing the teacher to begin the first activity. A short list of materials that students would need could be provided daily on the blackboard in order to reduce confusion at transitional moments. While seemingly simple, such changes in the classroom routine might help teachers devote more time to foreign languages and less to classroom management. Too, since questions and information needing immediate comprehension or response are customarily the focus of these periods, the tasks provide opportunities for more realistic use of languages; thus, a larger proportion of the target language might successfully be incorporated.

Speaking instruction received the third largest portion of class time—understandable especially in light of current emphasis on communicative competence. Yet the fact that this proportion is still under one quarter of the total available time and that over half of the utterances during instruction periods are spoken by the teacher are perhaps significant in explaining the small number of students who actually become communicatively competent in the second language—even though use of English during speaking activities is low. As noted above, fading of the teacher role, increased use of small-group activities, and drilling techniques providing for student-student interaction (chain

drill, role reversals, etc.) could represent alternatives to current practice.

Of the four remaining skills, culture and reading take up a relatively equal and comparatively small amount of class time, with teacher talk and use of English rather high in cultural instruction; whereas listening and writing instruction are allowed virtually no time. Emphasis on communicative competence seems, interestingly enough, to have its manifestations exclusively in oral, rather than in all four, basic skills, and that as a prerequisite, or at least a companion to speaking, listening has not received more emphasis.

In sum, this analysis of what actually occurs during language classes may help in investigating the problems discussed at the beginning of this paper. It seems that the distribution of time in each skill does much in explaining lesser competence in certain domains, as does the information on the quantity of talk in English and the proportion of speech in the target language by teachers rather than students.

Notes

1. Of a population of 57 foreign language teachers initially contacted concerning the study, 30 expressed interest in participating. Twenty were selected because of school location, city size, and presence/absence of a student teacher.
2. All conclusions drawn from these data are based on the average number of utterances per minute for teachers and students during the activity or skill in question.
3. The less commonly known terms describing activities for which data were recorded are: *warm-up*—a short, often humorous oral activity conducted at the beginning of a class session; *Gouin series*—a mode of oral presentation linking a series of actions with appropriate utterances to describe a chain of events; *guided conversation or composition*—structured oral or written work (question-answer, directed dialogue, reconstituted sentences, and resume, which is controlled in content and structures); *free conversation*—uncontrolled speaking that would occur naturally in conversational settings.
4. On this point see R. L. Politzer, *Teaching French—An Introduction to Applied Linguistics* (Waltham, Mass.: Blaisdell, 1965).

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9
A Realistic Look at the Function of Grammar in the Foreign Language Classroom

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One day in class, as an informal experiment, I asked two questions of my second-year students, all of whom had elected to continue their study of French at the university level. First, I inquired what exactly they expected to be able to do as a result of having studied French. There was instant consensus—they expected to be able to speak the language. Then I asked what they saw themselves doing to help attain this goal. Again, instant consensus—they expected to learn the rules and the exceptions to the rules and then to practice until, somehow, they *knew* French.

And so was defined a curious paradox. Does one learn a language by learning *about* a language? There is, after all, no difference between learning about history and learning history. On the other hand, one perceives a terrifying distance between learning about skiing and then actually putting on skis and shoving off down the slope. In fact, the difference is even greater. A person can learn about skiing and then learn to ski without the one necessarily implying the other. Similarly a person can learn about a language without ever being able to use that language (e.g., linguists studying a language as it applies to linguistic theory); and a person can use a language without consciously knowing about that language (e.g., native speakers with no linguistic training). The problem and the paradox for the foreign language teacher lie, then, in deciding the relative importance of knowing *about* a language in relation to the ultimate goal of proficiency in the *use of* that language. Phrased differently, what exactly is the function of grammar in the foreign language classroom?

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Grammar Above- and Underground

If the goals of the foreign language classroom include a knowledge of language structure and the ability to communicate accurately in the language, then grammar study is a natural and expected activity. In many cases, however, the study of grammar is undertaken for reasons of expediency, tradition, and desperation rather than from a conscious consideration of the alternatives. If a course is being taught toward a specific and limited goal such as happens in special-purpose courses (Spanish for the Traveler, Russian for Engineering, French-in-order-to-pass-the-final-exam), one has little difficulty deciding what to teach. If, however, only the vague and general goal of "learning French" or "learning English" exists, then the task becomes overwhelming and the teacher tends to settle for what the book offers, or, at most, to base the syllabus on his or her own selection of grammatical points.[1] Although emphasis on constructing language courses along situational lines has increased in recent years, many teachers and course planners continue to construct a syllabus or to evaluate a book by its grammatical content and to plan in terms of verb tenses to be covered and pronouns to be learned.

Accompanying the tendency to organize course goals around grammatical constructs is the equally strong tendency to teach that which can easily be tested. In French, for example, agreement of the past participle is a periodic visitor even in those classrooms where communication is stressed. Why? Because this particular point is complex enough to distribute students along a grade point continuum, it remains relatively easy to test, grade, and teach. Similarly, as Howatt points out, teachers who choose to stress accuracy at the expense of fluency accrue an immediate and obvious advantage. "The pupils can be examined and tested to see whether they have acquired this accuracy or not. Accuracy is simple to examine, mainly because it tests grammatical rules which can easily be judged right or wrong, and so tests can be marked without too much argument. Fluency is almost impossible to mark fairly, which is a pity because it is a more important skill in most real-life situations."[2]

Thus, for reasons of expediency, grammar becomes central to the foreign language classroom. However, another aspect of the grammar underground can be noted—the long-standing identification of foreign language teaching with the proscriptive tradition in native language

(here, English) instruction. One notes with interest that educators, who are currently stressing a "back-to-basics" orientation in curriculum, tend to see foreign language study as a basic intellectual discipline, the value of which resides in the linguistic insights it gives students into the nature of their own language. Max Rafferty, for example, has ascribed the failure of the audio-lingual approach (and by implication all later methods of teaching a foreign language) solely to the fact that students had a poor foundation in English grammar. He then points out that mastery of a language requires "explicit instruction in the principles of . . . language . . . and this means grammar, sentence structure, punctuation, and all the rest of it." Communication, in Rafferty's views, may be important, but "it's far more important to learn to do a complex thing correctly and to know precisely why it's correct."[3] Students should, in other words, learn rules.

And, in fact, many students have been and remain as happy to learn rules as any traditional grammarian could wish. In 1957, Eugene Nida remarked that students rebel against using the foreign language in the classroom because they are more familiar with reading and writing and that, to these students, grammar is an "easy way out."[4] Nine years later, Fishman pointed out that unremitting use of the foreign language in the classroom may precipitate feelings of anxiety, anomie, uncertainty, and dissatisfaction on the part of students.[5] Christopherson concurred in 1973 when he warned of the pressures brought to bear on students through use of the direct method and the exclusion of all native language interaction.[6] And, finally, today's students appear to remain as resistant to the increasing emphasis on functional language use as were their teachers when they were students. They continue to expect "that classroom activity will concern itself with matters of form, and bewilderment bordering occasionally on hostility [occurs] upon realizing that that's not always the way we do it."[7]

A grammar rule can be learned as can biological phyla or mathematical equations, but performing in another language is threatening to many students. Somehow, John feels awkward "talking" German to Joe, whom he has known for six years, much less to Rick who just moved here. School, so we have been led to believe, exists in order that students learn rules, reasons, and rationales—not in order for them to play games in the name of communicative competence. Thus students and teachers

tend to join the public at large in a conspiracy to reduce language learning to intellectually acceptable rules and emotionally neutral regulations; these, in turn, lend themselves readily to testing, evaluation, and quantification. It is small wonder that grammar is seen by many as basic to language study—it's expedient, measurable, and traditional all at the same time!

Grammar as a Result

One question remains: Does the teaching of grammar achieve desired results? If the goal of language study is the acquisition of insight into how a language functions, then the answer has to be yes. Students who successfully learn about the grammar of a foreign language will be better able (than those who do not) to appreciate the subtleties and complexities of language in general; this achievement is worthy in its own right and is a valid goal of language instruction in an academic setting.

If, however, the goal is the production of students able to use the language at a level sufficient for minimal communication with native speakers of a language, then the answer has to be no. The reduction of language to a structural description is possible; however, it is not possible to reduce a language user to a well-practiced compendium of knowledge about a language. Continued and stringent attention to the rules of a foreign language seldom eliminates inaccuracy and error. In fact, students seem at times to persevere purposely in making mistakes in the simplest and most straightforward (from a pedagogical point of view) constructions. Thus, the Spanish teacher continues to lament the persistent confusion between *ser* and *estar*, and the French teacher stands in mute awe of students' ability to use *avoir* as a past tense auxiliary with verbs that require *être*—despite the successful completion of many and varied drills and exercises.

Although we have evidence that adult language learners can benefit from the explicit teaching of grammar,[8] the extent to which a conscious knowledge of the rules can be expected to help students in their attempts to master a language is, at best, problematical. The reasons for this state of affairs are many and varied. First, the grammar presented to learners is, of necessity, incomplete. Contrary to what is implied by language textbooks, most rules are "attempts at explanation *after the*

fact"[9] and have only partial validity when compared with daily language use. A case in point is the formation of yes/no questions in English. In theory, the auxiliary verb is inverted or placed in front of the subject to produce this type of question (e.g., *Are you going to the movies?*). The use of either the inverted or the statement form is not determined by a strictly linguistic or grammatical rule but rather by the degree of certainty or presupposition possessed by the questioner. That is, if Jack knows John is going to the movies, he will use the statement form; whereas, if he is unsure of John's plans, he will use the inverted form.[10] To extend this example, consider the following sequence taken from a beginning French class:

Teacher: Qu'est-ce que vous faites le samedi?
Student: Je vais . . . (hesitation apparent)
Teacher: Vous allez au cinéma ou peut-être que vous jouez au football?
Student: Oui, je vais au cinéma.
Teacher: Vous allez au cinéma. Et après, qu'est-ce que vous faites?

The textbook, in contrast to actual interrogative usage, states categorically that questions in French are formed by either inverting subject and verb or by prefacing the statement form with *est-ce que,* leaving the student to choose between text and teacher as model. As Evelyn Hatch has pointed out, the importance of discourse constraints—the semantic and communicative functions of language structures at the suprasentential level—is just beginning to be studied, and at this point it makes little sense to be dogmatic about the inviolability of context-free textbook grammar.[11]

Moreover, teaching and learning a foreign language remain colored by the prejudices of proscriptive grammar practices of the past. It is, after all, no more authoritarian to tell students that questions in German or French are formed according to certain rules and then to base a grade on the correct usage of those rules, than it is to insist upon the "correct" use of *lie* and *lay, sit* and *set* and to test students on their mastery of the concept. In both cases, authority, right and wrong, and scholastic consequences are present. The only difference is that the foreign language learner seldom has additional sources with which to compare the pronouncements of teacher or text. The result is a learner who feels there is a right and a wrong to the foreign language and who is likely to concentrate on form rather than function. The problem is

compounded by the fact that many of today's foreign language teachers are yesterday's foreign language learners—learners who often feel more comfortable with the dubious certainties of the grammar book and the knowledge that they know correct from incorrect, than they do with the apparent vagaries of naturally occurring language.

Learned or Acquired?

If, then, conscious learning of grammar may be helpful but is neither a necessary nor a sufficient condition for gaining proficiency in a language, what is? Krashen distinguishes between the conscious learning of the rules of a language and the unconscious acquisition of its forms and functions.[12] According to his "Monitor Model," adults have the possibility of accessing two systems in performing in a foreign language. One system, the monitor, is a conscious process whereby language production is subjected to a kind of "final control check" by comparing output to what the learner knows is correct according to the rules. The acquisition system, on the other hand, is unconscious, does not rely on overt knowledge, and is active in all children—as well as (apparently) in the vast majority of adults. According to this model, acquisition precedes learning with the learned system filling in the gaps, frequently through reliance on transfer from native language structures. Foreign language utterances are initiated by the acquired system and are subsequently scanned by the monitor when time permits and when the focus of the activity is on form rather than function.

As a productive system, the monitor is limited in its parameters. All learners do not or perhaps cannot access it, and its function appears to be restricted to items that have not yet been acquired and/or items that are relatively easy to learn and apply. Such items would include the third person *-s* in the present tense of English verbs, the use of *de* after a negative in French, and pronoun placement when it differs from the native language. Monitor breakdown or underuse would thus account for the "little, stupid" mistakes that students tend to persist in—errors that do not really hinder communication but whose origin teachers cannot understand because they are conceptually so easy. Remembering to place the *-s* on *tu aimes* or to make adjectives agree with

their noun would require use of the conscious system—the monitor—and students appear to differ in the degree to which they can or will utilize this resource.

Conversely, those areas of language that teachers find difficult to explain and that students frequently find impossible to understand may be resistant to conscious learning and control yet amenable to unconscious acquisition. Research conducted by Krashen, Butler, Birnbaum, and Robertson has indicated that, for intermediate-level students learning English as a second language, the "more global or complex aspects of grammar were likely to be acquired, while 'easy' rules and rules covering small syntactic domains would tend to be learned."[13] What this conclusion means for the classroom teacher is that attempting to teach students how to manipulate the preterite-imperfect distinction in French or Spanish will be relatively futile—a fact teachers already know well. As Howatt has written: "In the end success in learning is a matter of sufficient experience—gradually the pupil will come to "feel" the difference in meaning between different forms of the verb. We cannot do much to help because in many cases we ourselves cannot clearly describe the differences in meaning that we intuitively recognize."[14]

Whither Grammar?

The debate concerning the role of overt rule learning versus covert language acquisition is ancient. The Middle Ages, as well as the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, held that learning the rules necessarily preceded acquiring practical skills, while the Classical Era, the Renaissance, and the early twentieth century relied instead on the development of an intuitive command of the language before attempting any formal learning about it.[15] At present, language teachers often appear to be attempting the *tour de force* of doing both at once, that is, of trying to provide an atmosphere conducive to the acquisition of communicative competence while simultaneously insisting upon a conscious knowledge of language structure.

Beginning with Savignon's study of the role of natural communication in foreign language learning,[16] and continuing with research into a natural order of morpheme acquisition among second language learners

regardless of amount of formal training or native language,[17] an impressive amount of evidence has been accumulated pointing to the importance of adequate target language input and sufficient natural language use in attaining a practical mastery of a foreign or second language.[18] In large part, this research has paralleled the realization among those studying first language acquisition that the gap between the habit formation of empiricist association (the original basis of audio-lingualism) and nativism, or the black-box theory of miraculous language acquisition, can be bridged only by looking at what the child does with language and in what manner she or he uses it to establish ties with and manipulate the surrounding environment. Jerome Bruner, a noted theorist and researcher in the area of language acquisition, has summarized this viewpoint and its relationship to learning a second language in exceptionally lucid terms.

> There is an enormous amount of teaching involved in transmitting the language, though very little of it has to do with language lessons proper. It has to do with making intentions clear, as speaker and as actor, and with overcoming difficulties in getting done in the real world what we want done by the mediation of communication. And this is why learning a second language is so difficult. The moment we teach language as an explicit set of rules for generating well-formed strings out of context, the enterprise seems to go badly wrong. The rule in natural language learning is that language is learned in order to interact with someone about something the two of you share.[19]

Nevertheless, I would argue for the place of grammar in the foreign language classroom, but for one which has a specified place, respected limitations, and the presentation of which is accompanied by all the natural language use the situation allows. Why should we continue to emphasize grammar within the limitations just mentioned? First, there is value in learning about how languages are put together and there are insights to be gained from the study of a foreign language that cannot be derived from the study of one's own. Second, students expect to learn grammar, and teachers know how to present, drill, and test it. Third, the study of grammar confers academic validity on our classrooms. My point is not that the acquisition of a foreign language without formal study of its grammar is either unimportant or

without intellectual merit. On the contrary, I am simply respecting a fact of scholastic life: one foreign language learned in the classroom seems always to equal two learned in the bush.

How then should grammar be taught? Smith has suggested that the task of applied linguistics is, first, to reduce the arbitrariness of language by revealing as much of its system as possible and, second, to aid learners by introducing sets of linked instructions that will teach learners to think their way through a linguistic conundrum.[20] A simple example concerns the necessity of distinguishing between the subject and the direct object of a sentence, a distinction that becomes of paramount importance when attempting to decide which interrogative or relative pronoun to use. Since students are usually able to find the subject with little difficulty, the algorithm would be: (1) find the subject; (2) what's left is the direct object. As simple as this appears, it can save students much uncertainty when trying to decide whether to use *qui* or *que* in a relative clause in French. Another more complex example concerns the replacement of a noun or noun phrase by a pronoun. Using French as the target language and assuming that the exercise requires the student to substitute a pronoun for the underlined word or words in a sentence, the algorithm would proceed roughly as follows: (1) Does the underlined portion consist of *à* plus a person (i.e.,*à Daniel, au garçon, aux filles,* etc.)? (2) If so, then replace with an indirect object (*me, te, lui, nous,* etc.). (3) If not, continue. (4) Does the underlined portion consist of *à* or another preposition of place (*en, sur, dans,* etc.)? (5) If so, replace by *y*. (6) If not, continue.

Obviously, students will soon learn to do away with unnecessary portions of such a procedure, but the rate at which they do so will doubtless vary widely. It should also be emphasized that algorithms of this type make absolutely no pretense of leading to natural language usage. We have, after all, no evidence that a native speaker of French proceeds in this or any other fashion when speaking or writing. What this procedure does accomplish is to increase the likelihood that students will be able to handle language analytically—an especially important accomplishment when one considers the analytic method by which foreign language learning is most frequently tested. Further, by giving the students the tools they need to succeed in the formal study of a foreign language, we are encouraging them to continue, and the

longer they persevere, the more opportunity they will have to acquire a "feel" for language.

Thus, a major function of grammar in the foreign language classroom is to give students and teachers academically valid work to do while hopefully allowing the time necessary for natural acquisition to take place. Again, I do not intend to imply that the study of grammar is in any way unimportant; I simply mean to emphasize that one can expect formal rule learning to yield the ability to manipulate formal rules, while competent use of the foreign language in real-life situations is most likely to be developed in those settings where language is a tool for getting something done rather than the subject of discussion. At best, the overt learning of grammatical rules will lead to a more efficient monitoring of the learner's output—again, not an unimportant goal, but certainly not the major one in most foreign language classrooms.

The study of grammar for its own sake is valid; the study of grammar in order to acquire competence in a language is unlikely to succeed. In order to learn to use a language, students will have to be exposed to infinitely more language in infinitely more ways than is the usual practice. The conscious learning of grammar may lead to initial success. Such success is, however, illusory and limited. How many students emerge from formal language training with any real degree of competence in the language they have spent two to four years studying? Very few. Yet, we have ample evidence to demonstrate that "almost any student . . . placed in the appropriate milieu, given ample opportunity and the support of his parents, peers and teachers can successfully *acquire* a second language."[21] Given the situation in most foreign language classrooms today, I find it doubtful that students will ever be able to emerge as competent speakers of the target language based on formal instruction alone. They can, however, emerge as knowledgeable language learners who will be able to develop and exploit "an awareness of language both as a system and as a means of communication," who will understand that the study of grammar is only a part of language—and that grammatical knowledge can enhance one's ability to communicate in that language—but who do not expect knowing *about* a language to equal knowing that language.

Notes

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3. Max Rafferty, *Classroom Countdown: Education at the Crossroads* (New York: Hawthorn, 1970), pp. 117–18.
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5. Joshua A. Fishman, "The Implications of Bilingualism for Foreign Language Teaching and Language Learning," *Trends in Language Teaching*, ed. Albert Valdman (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966), pp. 129–30.
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12. S. Krashen, "Some Issues Relating to the Monitor Model," *On TESOL '77: Teaching and Learning English as a Second Language: Trends in Research and Practice*, ed. H. Douglas Brown, Carlos A. Yorio, and Ruth H. Crymes (Washington, D.C.: TESOL, 1977), pp. 144–58.
13. Stephen D. Krashen et al., "Two Studies in Language Acquisition and Language Learning," *CUNY Forum: Papers in Linguistics*, ii(1977), pp. 12–38.
14. Howatt, p. 14.
15. Louis G. Kelly, *25 Centuries of Language Teaching* (Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1969), p. 7.
16. Sandra J. Savignon, *Communicative Competence: An Experiment in Foreign Language Teaching* (Philadelphia: Center for Curriculum Development, 1972).
17. See Krashen (note 13 above) for a summary and extension of this research.
18. J. Wagner-Gough and E. Hatch, "The Importance of Input Data in Second Language Acquisition Studies," *Language Learning*, 25(1975), pp. 297–308.
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20. M. A. Sharwood Smith, "Applied Linguistics and the Psychology of Instruction—A Case for Transfusion," *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 1, ii(1978), pp. 94–101.
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10
Teaching Basic Reading Comprehension Skills

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Since the wave of audio-lingualism swept through the foreign language classrooms of America, teachers have treated reading as a means to other ends rather than as an important skill in its own right. This practice continues today: foreign language students are still asked to read primarily in order to give them something about which to talk and write.

To place reading at the hub of the language program and not seek to cultivate this skill deliberately and systematically is madness. Students who have to labor through every short story and novel they read are certainly not likely to develop much of an appreciation for literature. Similarly, readers whose understanding of a text is minimal at best will not find follow-up oral discussions intended to develop speaking skills very profitable. In short, all the language skills stand to benefit from the addition of a systematic approach to the development of the reading skill. In the following pages three components of such an approach are presented.

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Positive correlations between reading fluency and vocabulary size are regularly reported in research on reading.[1] It should not be at all surprising, therefore, that students themselves rate vocabulary difficulties as their biggest problem in learning to read a foreign language.[2]

Among reading specialists, the deficiency that second language students find so troubling is widely referred to as an "inadequate sight vocabulary." Sight words are those which a reader can recognize "on sight," either within context or in isolation. The most efficient way to expand a student's sight vocabulary is through direct instruction.

Sight words are best taught prior to rather than during or after reading, since unfamiliar words are obstacles to comprehension. Removing these stumbling blocks enables the reader to spend less time in dictionary consultation and more in concentration on an author's thoughts. The common practice of giving students a list of isolated words to look up as they read is definitely not recommended.

The following steps are recommended for teaching sight words. After new vocabulary items have been presented on the board or in a handout, they should be used orally in context and their meaning should be explained and discussed. Students should also be encouraged to use the new words in sentences.

Since sight words are rarely learned after one or two exposures, they should be reinforced following each reading assignment. Reinforcement may take the form of vocabulary exercises or ungraded tests, word games or crossword puzzles (preferably student-prepared), and/or writing activities that require use of the newly learned vocabulary.

Another means of developing sight word knowledge that is particularly valued by specialists is self-selected reading of materials written at the reader's independent reading level. These passages are ones students are able to read on their own without special assistance from a teacher. Sight word review can be ensured by providing selections dealing with themes and topics that have been covered in class and by allowing students to reread favorites read earlier.

Reading practice with materials that are well within the students' grasp will help develop their reading fluency as well as strengthen word knowledge. Such reading experiences also serve to reward students for their efforts to improve reading ability.

Since foreign language teachers are themselves skilled readers in two or more languages, they are often unable to understand fully the struggles and frustrations that their students experience in learning to read. The following reading passage has been especially devised to help teachers gain empathy for their students. It is designed to help illustrate problems inherent in reading a text containing many words that are not easily recognized on sight.

> Att uh riescent mieteing att thuh kapituhl hier yn Madisun, un knuhmbur ov ledgusllaitevve yshobz wer dhyscust. Awhl delt weith tuhrizuhmn yn Weiskonsein. Klyph Kharlsuhn whoo onze uh smawhl phische-pharm

nier Wabieno lead thuh phyte phor tacks braxe phor stait biznusmuhn whooze prauphutz halve bin sclascht biekuz ov thuh enuhrjee chryssusse. Uhthur kuhnsyrnde sytazunze dgoined hym yn diemandeing ymiedyate rheleaph phor psutch pursonze. "Theings ahre knough kwyte tuph phor amhl ov ush yn hour lyne ov endhevuhr," hie kuhmplaned, "scynsce phyool iz knough att psutch uh priemeiyuhm, thuh kroudze dgust ahrnt kumeing leyc thae yuste tue. Thatt pspelz illawsuhz, yew gno. Thattze hweye thieze phoxe ahre hier."[3]

Readers who succeed in making sense of the "phische-pharme" passage despite an inadequate sight vocabulary do so by putting their word identification skills to work. These skills are strategies readers use to understand printed words that are unfamiliar. With a knowledge of word identification techniques, students can expand their reading vocabulary on their own and thereby gain greater independence as readers.

Phonic Analysis

This word identification technique is useful when a sight word is not recognized immediately or when a word in the reader's oral vocabulary is encountered in print for the first time. Phonic analysis involves applying the rules of letter-sound correspondences to determine the pronunciation of a word in the reader's listening or speaking vocabulary. Phonic analysis also is useful for transferring new words acquired through other word identification techniques to the reader's active speaking vocabulary. The most generalizable sound-symbol correspondences can usually be introduced within the first few weeks of beginning reading instruction. The less widely used rules and exceptions are best taught as the need arises.

Morphological Analysis

Perhaps an even more useful word identification technique for foreign language students is morphological analysis. This term refers to the ability to identify unfamiliar words on the basis of word form clues. Morphological analysis can be applied to cognates and to words with familiar prefixes, suffixes, roots, and inflectional endings.

Cognate Recognition

Cognates are words in different languages that are similar in meaning and/or spelling. For example, French and Spanish cognates of the English word "curiosity" are respectively *curiosité* and *curiosidad*. Since many cognates are not spelled exactly the same way as their English counterparts, patterns of cognate correspondence will need to be taught to facilitate recognition. If a reader has learned, for example, that many verbs ending in *-tenir* in French end in *-tain* in English, it is then easy for students to determine the meanings of verbs such as *obtenir, contenir,* and *maintenir.*

A four-step procedure for teaching students to identify the meaning of cognates is as follows: (1) *Introduction.* Students learn the concept of a cognate by calling their attention to the words in a sample text that resemble English words. Selected sample words are then used to illustrate the more common systematic variations in spelling that exist between the two languages. (2) *Controlled practice.* Special exercises should clearly illustrate the spelling rules that have been studied. (3) *Practice in context.* To facilitate transfer to regular reading situations, students are asked to read selected passages with the single purpose of identifying cognates. For junior high students, this skill development activity may be presented in the form of a "Cognate Race." The student who is the first to find all the cognates is declared the winner. (4) *Follow-up.* Whenever new cognates appear in a reading lesson, students are encouraged to use morphological analysis to work out their meanings. They are also reminded to check whether their guesses make sense in context. Students should learn to check context so as to avoid being misled by false cognates (words for which meanings have diverged although spellings have not).

As their stock of sight words increases, students can begin to make use of it in analyzing the structure of unfamiliar words for familiar parts. For example, a reader who is familiar with *le dos* and *le genou* could use that knowledge in reading the following examples to determine the meaning of *s'agenouilla* and *le dossier: Elle se pencha sur le dossier de ma chaise. / Il s'agenouilla dans l'église.* The teaching of roots and affixes can be done informally as words that lend themselves to structural analysis appear in a given text.

Contextual Analysis

Another powerful aid to vocabulary expansion is the use of contextual analysis. This term refers to a reader's attempts to understand the meaning of an unfamiliar word by searching the surrounding context for semantic and/or syntactic clues to its identity. Unlike phonic and morphological analysis, which deal with teachable and transferable rules and generalizations, contextual analysis does not involve a set of rules that the reader must learn to apply. Contextual analysis is a mind set, a way of behaving toward reading. What the reader must learn to develop is a cue-searching approach to reading.

One way to foster the cue-searching habit is through daily or weekly exercises that require an interpretation of nonsense words.

1. *Luc est* [*mirté*] *parce qu'il a mangé trop de pommes./Mirté veut dire:* (a) *content,* (b) *gourmand,* (c) *méchant,* (d) *malade*
2. *Tandis que tu t'ennuies à la campagne, moi qui aime les animaux, je m'y* [*crénis.*] */Se crénir veut dire:* (a) *s'amuser,* (b) *se fatiguer,* (c) *se plaindre,* (d) *pleurer*

Practice in using context should also be made a part of every reading lesson. When the text is previewed prior to the lesson to identify vocabulary for preteaching, a careful examination should be made of the context in which each unfamiliar word appears. For words that are located in a rich contextual setting, direct teaching should be bypassed in favor of requiring the students to use context to figure out the meanings of the words for themselves.

While a good sight vocabulary and well-honed word identification skills are important in reading comprehension, word knowledge alone is not sufficient for adequate understanding of written discourse. The comprehension of sentences and groups of sentences requires an understanding of the relationships between the words in a sentence and the sentences in a paragraph.

The traditional tool for developing and assessing understanding of sentences and paragraphs is, of course, the oral or written question. Usually content-oriented, the function of questions is to find out what the reader has learned from the text. The comprehension activities that I will suggest here tend, on the other hand, to be more process-oriented. They are designed to give students practice in sentence and paragraph reading strategies that will be useful in understanding many different

kinds of content. By combining process-oriented exercises and content questions, teachers will be able to get a more complete picture of a reader's comprehension skills than would otherwise be possible.

Sentence Comprehension

Students can demonstrate their sentence reading ability by matching sentence halves in a meaningful way. The example below shows how this technique could be used to assess comprehension of sentences from the "phische-pharme" passage.

Example

1. Theings ahre knough kwyte tuph	a. yn diemandeing ymiedyate rheleaph phor psutch pursonze.
2. Thatt pspelz llawsuhz	b. phor awhl ov ush yn hour lyne ov end-hevuhr.
3. Uhthur kuhnsyrnde sytazunze djoined hym	c. yew gno.

Sentence understanding can also be demonstrated by matching sentences that go together. A dialogue situation is illustrated below.[4] Items on the left are listed in sequence. The responses on the right have been randomly ordered. The reader's task is to reconstruct the dialogue in a meaningful fashion. In exercises of this sort, all plausible answers should be given credit. Answers are indicated in parentheses.

Example

1. *Alors mon vieux Danteuil, qu'est-ce que tu penses du Maroc?* (B)	A. *C'est difficile à dire, j'ai beaucoup aimé Fez et Marrakech.*
2. *Qu'est-ce qui t'a fait choisir le Maroc? Tu n'en as jamais parlè.* (D)	B. *C'est un pays magnifique.*
3. *Tu y es allé seul?* (E)	C. *Oh, je ne sais pas, c'est très différent.*
	D. *J'ai reçu une invitation de mes cousins de Marrakech.*
	E. *Non, avec les deux Berthier, en 2 CV. Ça nous a pris quatre jours.*

To help readers break the habit of reading sentences as though they were mere strings of isolated words, exercises such as the following are useful. The reader's task is to identify the anomolous word in what would otherwise be meaningful sentences: (1) The next day step she got up and went to school early. (2) He looked for under his friends. (3) Julie invited her brother six to join them.

A student's sentence-reading ability can also be strengthened through practice in building sentences from given words and phrases.

In one gamelike exercise that has proven popular in junior high as well as in college classes, students are given an envelope containing word cards which they rearrange to produce a syntactically and semantically acceptable sentence. Capitalization and punctuation cues are included on the cards so that the beginning and end of the sentence can be easily determined: [building] [a] [practice] [sentence] [develops] [sentences] [in] [sense] [reader's]. When very long sentences are used, the unscrambling task will be more manageable if the sentences are broken down by phrase rather than word by word. In small classes, the teacher may wish to check each student's work, but if classes are large, the instructor may choose instead to include an answer card in each envelope. Since more than one plausible sentence might be produced with any set of word cards, all possible correct responses should be listed on the answer card.

After the sentences are checked, students reshuffle the cards, replace them in the envelope, and pass them on to a classmate seated in another part of the room. The same procedure can be continued until every student has worked with every set of cards.

Paragraph Reading

One way to check students' ability to understand discourse of paragraph length is to insert a nonsensical clause or sentence into a well-constructed paragraph and ask the students to underline or circle the statement that does not fit within the context of that paragraph.

Paragraph understanding frequently hinges on the reader's ability to relate anaphoric terms to the appropriate referents. Anaphora are grammatical substitutes for a word or group of words used earlier in a text. When anaphora may be a source of confusion in a critically important paragraph, students can be instructed to number them and then write the number of each over its antecedent. This labeling task enables students to note the relationships between the anaphora and their referents that might otherwise be missed.

Noting time relationships is one area of paragraph reading where foreign language students show particular weakness. The problem lies in their failure to read tense markers in verbs.[5] Modified cloze exercises can be used to correct this reading problem. Three to four tense options

for selected verbs in a paragraph-length passage are presented in a multiple-choice format. As students read the passage, they are to circle the most appropriate tense for each of the test verbs. The passage will be easier to read if the options are stacked one on the other rather than listed from left to right:

As students *did read* / *read* / *will read* *the passage, they are to circle the most appropriate form of the test verb.*

Sensitivity to organizational clues is also important in paragraph reading. Good readers are always on the alert for transition words and other connectives that show how the ideas in a paragraph are related to one another. One way to make students more aware of organizational cues is to extract key connectives and list them at the beginning of the passage. After students have read the passage in its mutilated form, they are to reconstruct it by replacing the organizational cues in a sensible fashion.

Paragraph-building exercises provide another means of heightening awareness of organizational cues. Students are given a series of randomly ordered sentences which they form into a logically arranged paragraph. Credit should be given for all plausible constructions which show that the reader is able to make sense of the text. The skill-building activities that have been described here will be more beneficial to the students if they are closely tied to regular reading assignments rather than presented as isolated exercises that are unrelated to reading problems the students are facing in their daily homework.

In the well-balanced reading program, content-oriented reading and skill development work are mutually reinforcing. Basic skills learned and practiced in exercises especially designed for skill building are transferred to reading assignments where they are refined.

Notes

1. See, for example, Dale D. Johnson and P. David Pearson, *Teaching Reading Vocabulary* (New York: Holt, Rinehart, 1978).
2. Carlos A. Yorio, "Some Sources of Reading Problems for Foreign Language Learners," *Language Learning*, 21(1971), pp. 107–15.
3. Text adapted from a course handout by K. L. Dulin, University of Wisconsin, Madison. The conventionally spelled version is as follows: "At a recent meeting at the capitol here in Madison, a number of legislative issues were discussed. All dealt with tourism in Wisconsin. Cliff Carlson, who owns a small fish-farm near Wabeno, led the fight for tax breaks for state businessmen whose profits have been slashed because of the energy crisis. Other concerned citizens joined him in demanding immediate relief for such persons. "Things are now quite tough for all of us in our line of endeavor, he complained, "since fuel is now at such a premium, the crowds just aren't coming like they used to. That spells losses, you know. That's why all these folks are here."
4. All text material is from Marilynn Ray, Marie-Antoinette Liotier, and Pierre J. Capretz, *ALM: French, Level Three*, 2nd ed. (New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1971).
5. June K. Phillips, "Second Language Reading: Teaching Decoding Skills," *Foreign Language Annals*, 8(1975), pp. 227–38.

11
Pictures and Reading Comprehension:
Some Research Results

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Most foreign language teachers assume that visual aids have some beneficial effects on second language learning.[1] Various suggestions for using visual materials can be found in most methods texts, and courses on audiovisual instructional techniques are fundamental to many foreign language education programs. One criterion for textbook selection is often the extent to which the book is illustrated with colorful photographs and imaginative drawings. Moreover, interest in the learning styles and preferences of individual students has led foreign language educators to consider the particular benefits of visual support for their "eye-minded" students. In an article on learning resources for language teachers, Harry Tuttle attests to the profession's assumptions about the usefulness of such aids: "Foreign language students can benefit from many types of visual material . . . the still or flat picture can prove to be a rich resource in the foreign language classroom."[2]

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Little experimental evidence has been obtained to validate Tuttle's assumption. We have virtually *no* empirical basis for promoting the use of visuals as aids to comprehension in the second language; in fact, we know practically nothing about how students benefit (at all) from visual materials.

The lack of research knowledge about the effects of visual aids extends into the area of reading comprehension in the native language as well as in the foreign language. The extent to which visual materials enhance reading comprehension among young learners in their first

language is still to be determined, even though interest in the question goes back many years. In 1936, Bess Goodykoontz discussed the role of pictures in first language reading comprehension; she remarked that although pictures were supposed to "enrich experience, supply visual imagery, contribute to the text, ensure meaningful reading, and add to understanding and pleasure," the specific contribution pictures make to reading comprehension had not yet been clearly identified.[3] Forty-three years later, little progress has been made in clarifying their role. In a recent article reviewing the literature on beginning reading, Samuel Weintraub notes that most studies on the role of illustrations in readers never really treat the question of their specific utility as aids to reading. He comments upon several studies that appear to address this issue and concludes: "None of these studies gives us the final answer or even provides direction."[4]

In terms of second language comprehension, reason exists for conjecture about the total effectiveness of the picture as a means of conveying specific meaning. Tardy points out the various ambiguities and possible interpretations that can be attached to even the "clearest" of visual materials; in his estimation, any attempt to limit students' interpretations of a given picture to a single meaning is more or less "doomed to failure."[5]

It does not follow, of course, that foreign language teachers should stop using pictorial support in their classrooms just because they lack evidence for the utility of visual aids in language instruction. Many questions relating to the role of visual materials in language comprehension evidently remain unanswered. In order to elucidate the possible contribution pictorial aids make to the language acquisition process, a series of data-based studies is necessary. Specifically, we need to determine the effects of visuals on both listening and reading comprehension, as well as on vocabulary learning in both the first and second language. Classification schemes need to be prepared to define visual materials according to type and function. The role of size and color in visual materials should be determined, as should the differential effects of photographs, cartoons and line drawings. Studies should be designed to determine the effects of sequencing and integration of visuals within textual materials and to examine the relevance of illustrations to the content of the passage.

In 1976 a study was conducted by the author relating specifically to the effects of several types of pictorial contexts on reading comprehension measures in beginning college French. The following section of this essay presents the results of that research.

Related Research

Two areas of the theoretical concern that have important implications for an approach to reading in the second language classroom are: (1) the nature of the reading process; and (2) the role of context and organization in language comprehension.

In Goodman's view, reading is a selective process in which the reader uses his knowledge of the language to associate graphic cues to syntactic, semantic, and phonological cues.[6] He does this by decoding the graphic cues he selects, storing them, and subsequently testing and associating them with future decoded selections. Frank Smith hypothesizes that the efficient language user will take the most direct route to his goal of comprehension by sampling pieces of language, predicting structures, and testing them against the semantic context already built up from the prior material.[7] The reader then confirms or rejects these hypotheses as further language is processed. According to Carlos Yorio, the factors involved in the native language reading process include: (1) knowledge of the language; (2) ability to predict or guess in order to make correct choices; (3) ability to remember the previous cues; and (4) ability to make the necessary associations between the different cues selected.[8]

In the foreign language reading process, however, these factors are modified. Because the reader's knowledge of the target language is less perfect than that of the native speaker, the guessing or predicting ability necessary to pick up the correct cues to meaning is hampered. Furthermore, wrong or uncertain choices of cues make associations between the previous material and the ongoing discourse more difficult. An additional problem arises when lack of training and unfamiliarity with the new language shortens the memory span for foreign language material. A final factor to consider is that at all levels and at all times, there is interference from the native language.[9]

The foreign language reader is therefore at a disadvantage for several reasons. Rather than recalling words and phrases with which he is

familiar, the reader is forced to remember linguistic elements that he knows imperfectly or not at all. This act will cause him to forget those cues to meaning much faster than he would in his native language. In addition, the second language reader must simultaneously predict future language elements and make associations with past cues—a slow and painful process for many readers inexperienced in the second language.

Yorio supports his view of the modified nature of the second language reading process with data collected from a questionnaire administered to thirty students at the English Language Institute. Respondents reported that they felt they understood what they were reading while in the process of reading it but that they easily lost the thread of the passage, forgetting what went on before as they processed the next sentence. The learner is apparently handicapped by an overload of tasks: remembering what has already occurred, predicting the next events, and tying the two together. Concentrating on one of these processes interferes with adequate completion of the others.

If, as Goodman and Smith suggest, reading is indeed a hypothesis-testing process in which the reader selects clues to meaning and makes predictions about ongoing events in a passage on the basis of these selections, then it seems reasonable to suppose that the provision of supplementary clues (such as pictures) would aid the reader in the task of comprehending the foreign language. This assumption would be especially true if a picture or set of pictures were to provide a conceptual basis for organizing the linguistic cues to meaning. In that case, the reader would be better prepared to make predictions and to formulate hypotheses when encountering unfamiliar words and expressions in a passage.

The role of context in comprehension has been illustrated by psycholinguistic studies. During four experiments in listening comprehension in the native language, Bransford and Johnson showed that comprehending prose passages is facilitated greatly when appropriate context is provided.[10] In all four studies, subjects who were supplied with contextual pictures before hearing a passage had significantly better recall scores than did subjects who were not provided with a context or who were provided with one only after hearing the passage. The subjects with the pictures also rated the listening passage as highly

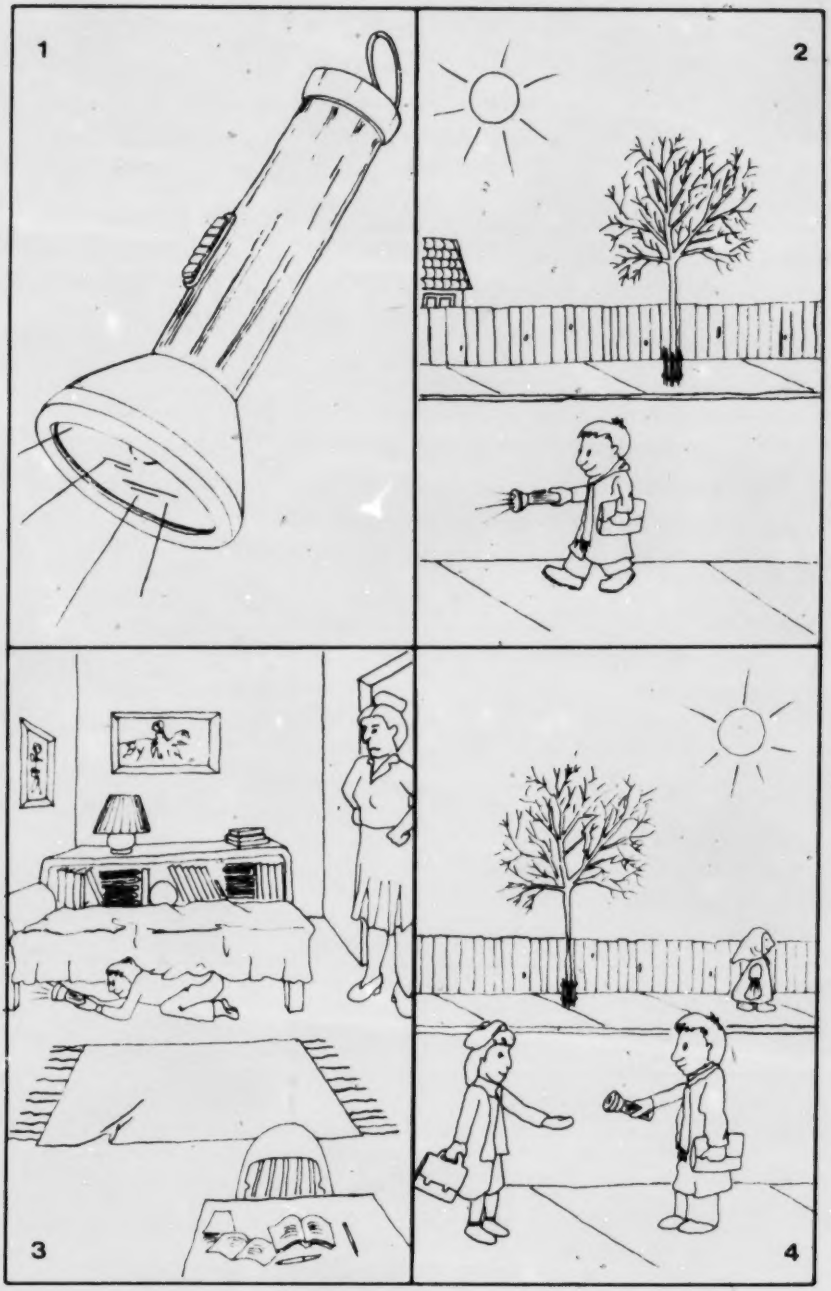
comprehensible, whereas those without pictures found it very difficult to comprehend. Bransford and Johnson felt that their results showed the importance of organization in comprehension:

> It one generally characterizes comprehension as a process requiring appropriate semantic contexts, then the conditions under which existing structures become activated are extremely important. If a passage does not provide sufficient cues about its appropriate semantic context, the subject is in a problem-solving situation in which he must find a suitable organization of his store of previous knowledge.[11]

Because foreign language learners are often asked to read and listen to unfamiliar, difficult, and unpredictable material, they will most likely fail to comprehend a passage unless they can find a suitable context or organizational scheme. Additional contextual information should make the comprehension task easier by providing such an organizational scheme for the passage as a whole. Although a situational picture does not serve as a translation, it can give the reader certain indications about the relationship of events occurring in the passage. Understanding such relationships enables readers to make better predictions about what will occur and eliminate various hypotheses that would mislead them if such a context were not provided. The experiment described in the next section is designed to provide empirical support for the foregoing hypotheses.

The Experiment

In order to determine the effects of certain types of pictures on reading comprehension in beginning French, a study was conducted in which six types of pictorial contexts were used as advance organizers for a test passage. Four of the pictorial contexts are depicted in Figures 1–4. Figure 1 represents a flashlight, an object directly related to the theme of the passage and representing the title of the story. This picture was chosen to see what effect, if any, a single key object depicted without additional context had on reading comprehension measures. Figure 2 depicts a scene from the beginning of the story; it represents the action narrated in the opening paragraph but does not depict events beyond this introductory matter. In Figure 3, a scene from the main portion of the story is shown. Figure 4 depicts a scene from the end of the story.


1
2
3
4

Two other pictorial contexts were used in the experiment: no picture was provided in one of these conditions; in the other, students saw Figures 2, 3, and 4 together.

A 6×3 factorial design was used in the study. Of the eighteen treatment groups ($N = 664$), six read the text in French and six groups read the same story in English. The remaining six groups had no text to read. The 233 subjects for the six French treatment groups were enrolled in French 102 (second quarter, beginning college French sequence). The six groups in the English textual condition provided information about any differential effects the pictures might have on comprehension in the native language. The six groups with no text provided data about the amount of information available in the pictures themselves without benefit of the accompanying written story.

Comprehension was tested in two ways. After the students read the passage and/or looked at the pictures, they were asked to take ten minutes to write a resumé of the passage in English, recalling as many facts as they could. (This recall measure was scored by tallying the number of facts and legitimate inferences students made from reading the story and/or examining the pictures. The list of acceptable facts and inferences was generated from the simple propositions underlying each sentence of the passage. Interrater and intrarater reliabilities were .99 and .98 for these tallies. A third tally was kept of all falsehoods and unacceptable inferences reported in the resumé.)

After the resumé was collected, students took a twenty-item true-false/multiple-choice test that examined their comprehension of selected facts and inferences from the passage. Test reliability for this recognition knowledge measure was .92.

The story itself was a 650-word passage adapted from Sempé and Goscinny's reader, *Joachim a des ennuis*, and entitled "La Lampe de poche" ("The Flashlight").[12] No title was provided in the experiment, however, because we have evidence that titles may serve as advance organizers and thereby enhance reading comprehension scores. A minimal number of lexical items and structures were glossed marginally in English to ensure that the text was at the appropriate level of difficulty for French 102 students.

The text used in the English textual conditions was a translation (by the researcher) of the story given to the French students. In all

three textual conditions, students saw one of the pictorial contexts described above. Pictures, drawn from illustrations in the text by the researcher, were reproduced on duplicating masters and attached to the front of the two-page reading passage in the twelve textual conditions; in the six treatment groups where no text was provided students were given one of the pictures or set of pictures without any attached reading passage.

For the English and no-text conditions, Psychology 100 students who were not presently enrolled in French were obtained for the experiment and assigned randomly to treatment groups. After the subjects were given fifteen minutes to read the passage in the English groups, they wrote a resumé in English and took the objective test. The students with no text were asked to look at the picture(s) and write a story suggested by the visuals. They also completed the twenty-item objective test after the resumés had been collected.

In the French groups, the reading passage was scheduled into the course syllabus by the French 102 coordinator. All instructors received detailed instructions about the experimental procedures and were asked to adhere to the time schedule and to follow directions explicitly.

Pictorial treatments were assigned to each of the eighteen French classes (six groups of three classes each) by means of a random numbers table. Students were given fifteen minutes to read the passage, ten to write the resumé in English, and ten to complete the twenty-item objective test.

Analysis and Results

The obtained data were first submitted to a series of multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA) to ensure protection against alpha error. Scores for the number of facts, inferences, falsehoods, and a total recall score were recorded for the resumés. Scores for the multiple-choice test and the true-false test, as well as a total recognition score, were also recorded. Table I summarizes the results of both the multivariate analysis and the follow-up univariate analyses of these scores. F-ratios are significant at the .001 level.

An examination of the group means for both the recall and recognition measures shows that the various pictures had differential effects on reading comprehension in both the native and the foreign language.

Scores on all the measures for the English text show no significant differences between groups, suggesting that the pictures did not differentially affect reading comprehension in the native language. The scores were significantly different, however, for both the recognition and recall measures in the French groups; that is, different pictures had different effects on comprehension. The best scores were obtained when students had the prethematic context to look at (see Figure 2). The lowest scores were obtained when there was no picture.

An analysis of variance on the error scores obtained from the resumés was also made. Tallies were kept of all the erroneous statements students made when summarizing the story in English, and there were significant differences ($p<.001$) among the six pictorial conditions for these tallies. The average number of errors made by students reading the text in their native language was less than one per composition. When students read the same text in French, however, significantly more errors were committed when students had no picture or when they had the single-object drawing (Figure 1) than when they had other pictures to which to refer. The lowest number of errors was committed by students having the prethematic context (Figure 2). This result is consistent with the findings on the recognition and recall tests.

Table I.
Summary of Analyses of Variance
for Total Recognition and Recall Scores

Mutivariate F-ratios			*Univariate F-ratios*			
				Recognition		
Source	*df*	*F*	*Source*	*df*	*MS*	*F*
Pictorial contexts	(10.1290)	4.34[c]	Pictorial contexts	5	23.47	5.68[c]
			Text	2	7027.56	1699.97[c]
Text	(4.1290)	693.10[c]	Pictorial context X text	10	9.53	2.31[b]
Pictorial context X Text	(20.1290)	3.98[c]	Error	646		
				Recall		
			Pictorial contexts	5	329.80	4.49[c]
			Texts	2	100582.50	1369.91[c]
			Pictorial contexts X text	10	442.41	6.03[c]
			Error	646		

[a] $p < .05$
[b] $p < .01$
[c] $p < .001$

Discussion

The results of this research indicate clearly that the differences between pictorial conditions depended on the language in which the text was read. Differences between scores were significant only when the students were reading the text in the foreign language. No significant differences were found among the six groups reading in English or among the groups having no text to read. Only in the second language context were significantly different scores obtained with the different pictorial contexts. The research results can be summarized as follows.

- A picture of some kind had a significant positive effect on comprehension of the text, but only when the passage was read in the second language. Of all the pictures presented, the one that was most helpful was the scene from the beginning of the story (Figure 2). This picture may have been the best visual aid for several reasons: it was informative enough to contribute cues to the overall, general meaning of the story without being confusing; it depicted events from the beginning paragraphs, which helped the readers organize their existing store of knowledge before reading the opening sentences; it provided a general context to the story, which helped students avoid making wrong or uncertain hypotheses about the events occurring in the passage—that is, the picture may have helped students guess the meaning of words and structures with which they were unfamiliar.
- The data also suggest that all pictures are not equally effective in enhancing comprehension scores in the foreign language. Although having a picture of some kind was better than having none at all, the only picture that made, in and of itself, a significant difference in comprehension scores was the prethematic context (Figure 2). None of the other pictures contributed very much to the understanding of the story as measured by the recall test. Perhaps these pictures were relatively ineffective for one or more of the following reasons: they provided cues to events occurring late in the story and therefore failed to suggest an organizational scheme for the opening paragraphs; they provided too many additional cues and were confusing; the single-

object visual contained too little contextual information to help subjects understand the story. It seems that the best visual is a general picture, preferably from the beginning of the story.

- The lack of significant difference among scores within the English textual conditions suggests that, for a relatively easy text in the native language, pictorial aids may be superfluous.
- The results in the six groups having no text to read suggest that, at least in this study, it was not possible to "read" the pictures and score well on the criterion measures. Subjects with no text could not score above the chance level on the twenty-item test, and even the group with all three contextual visuals still could not report more than six or seven facts about the story on their resumés. These data suggest that the pictures, in and of themselves, did not give students pertinent factual information about the content. The advantage of having pictures must have been due to the fact that they served as advance organizers of a general nature.

Conclusions

The results of this study indicate that the choice of visual aid is important when illustrating reading passages in the second language. A visual context that is general in nature and that provides information which can be utilized in the comprehension of the beginning paragraphs is most likely the best choice. It is important that the picture chosen to illustrate a passage does not give too much information about the story content at once. A "busy" visual may confuse students. On the other hand, a single-object visual aid may not be very effective in enhancing reading comprehension for a passage. People, objects, and events need to be depicted in some relationship to one another if the visual aid is to be of any significant help to the reader.

This study is only one of many needed to clarify the role of visual material in language comprehension. If these results are replicated, one can derive several clear implications for teachers and developers of teaching materials.

1. One should be cautious about putting a great deal of faith in the power of single-object drawings to aid learners in tasks re-

quiring comprehension of extended prose. I do not mean that the single-object drawing is ineffective in vocabulary learning tasks. Further research is needed to clarify the role of such pictures in that domain.

2. Textbook writers and publishers should carefully consider the nature of illustrative materials used to accompany reading passages. A simple contextualized visual showing objects, people, and events in relationship to one another may be the best choice.
3. Teachers selecting textbooks and supplementary materials should examine critically the photos and drawings in terms of their potential usefulness in comprehension tasks. Pictures that "set the scene" for a reading passage will most likely afford the kind of visual support needed by the inexperienced reader.

Our profession often operates on the basis of intuition and assumption, and this may be as it should. I hope, however, that more research studies will be designed to help us clarify and support those intuitions. In the domain of pictorial aids, many questions remain to be answered; the language learner can only benefit from further exploration of them.

Notes

1. This paper is based on a more detailed article which will appear in *Foreign Language Annals* (date uncertain).
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3. Bess Goodykoontz, "The Relation of Pictures to Reading Comprehension," *Elementary English Review*, 13, iv(1936), p. 125.
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5. Michel Tardy, "La Fonction sémantique des images," *Etudes de linguistique appliquée*, 17(1975), pp. 29–34.
6. Kenneth S. Goodman, *The Psycholinguistic Nature of the Reading Process* (Detroit: Wayne State Univ. Press, 1968).
7. Frank Smith, *Psycholinguistics and Reading* (New York: Holt, Rinehart ,1973).
8. Carlos A. Yorio, "Some Sources of Reading Problems for Foreign Language Learners," *Language Learning*, 21(1971), pp. 108–09.
9. Ibid.
10. John D. Bransford and Marcia K. Johnson, "Contextual Prerequisites for Understanding: Some Investigations of Comprehension and Recall," *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, 11(1972), pp. 717–26.
11. Bransford and Johnson, p. 721.
12. Sempé et Goscinny, "La Lampe de poche," *Joachim a des ennuis* (New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1967), pp. 36–42.
13. D. J. Dooling and R. Lachman, "Effects of Comprehension in Retention of Prose," *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 88(1971), pp. 216–22.

12
Translation:
A Step Forward or Back?

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Translation and the Foreign Language Curriculum

Most teachers will probably agree that the elementary and intermediate phases of language instruction should be devoted to the development of the four basic skills. A natural curricular break seems to come after the second year in high school and after the third or fourth semester in college. Not many students enroll for composition and conversation classes past that point. Since traditional courses in literature, culture and civilization, and composition and conversation do not seem appealing to the vast majority of students completing those first two years of study, something new seems to be called for in the foreign language curriculum.

A course in *written translation*, we submit, has a definite place in the basic foreign language curriculum. Such a course: (1) connects target language and mother tongue; (2) refines reading and writing skills; (3) raises general awareness of language and increases sensitivity to it; (4) serves as a vehicle to the teaching of culture; (5) adds an interpretive dimension to language learning; and (6) prepares students in a meaningful way for the study and enjoyment of literature. The purpose of this paper is to present just such a course as we have devised it at the University of Northern Iowa. Before coming to that point, however, a few comments on the nature of translation are in order. We should also note at the outset that we are not attempting to develop a theory of translation.

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What is Translation?

While the question sounds almost rhetorical, when pondered awhile it loses its innocence. Some might say that translation puts something said or written in one language into another. But this statement makes no reference to form or style. A linguist may consider translation basically a decoding and encoding process. But this process evades the options translators have, the choices they need to make.

Every written translation starts out with a reading of the original text. Yet, this perusal is not reading for enjoyment, information, and/or retention, although all these elements may be involved. Translators who know that they have to translate a given text will read initially for translatability. They will note potential problems and will attempt almost immediately to rearrange structures to fit another language. If, for example, one were to ask someone with a good command of a second language, without any hints beforehand, whether the text just read would be easy to translate, the person can rarely answer without taking a second look at the text. Or, conversely, if one were to ask a translator who reads a text and knows she has to translate it whether the text was enjoyable, her answer would be unsatisfactory because there is a special way of reading a given text for translation purposes.

So far, the process is simple. One hundred percent of the input is provided by someone else, by the author of the original. The reader is not called upon for creative input.

Just the opposite is true, however, when we write—encode—something; one hundred percent of the input is, theoretically at least, being provided by us. We are totally creative. Yet when we translate, we obviously do not have total creative freedom. Much of the input, along with limits on the translator's creativity, is provided by someone else.

Yet, it is not possible to have a final translation product that one could call "objective." Something drastic happens to an original text after its decoding: it goes through the brain of another human being—the translator, that is. In this way, both information and form intermingle freely with the sum of the translator's own knowledge, feelings, attitudes, imagination, and values. Some of these elements are added intentionally or unintentionally (mostly the latter) to the translation. In other words, the translator not only acts as a catalyst, he or she

necessarily adds to or detracts from the original in both content and form. The product, then, is subjective and the entire process is usually referred to as "interpretation."

That term means that choices involving a basic selection of words have to be made: the English word "put" has, in most languages known to us, five or six different meanings. Whether the translator wants to or not, he has to choose. Word order in Spanish, German, or French is very much different from that of English. The translator has to make structural rearrangements and choices. Idiomatic expressions add color and life to a text; unfortunately, they seldom have exact parallels in other languages. The translator must decide whether to find an equivalent or to circumvent the expression and thus lose some color. Most texts are written in a certain style or in a combination of styles. To duplicate a certain level of style, or to write a translation with any stylistic consistency, is the most difficult task of all. But it is obvious what all these forced choices will do to the student-translator: they will raise his or her language consciousness and awareness, resulting in a general sensitivity to that which is special and particular to a certain language. The translator will see that one of the creative forces of German lies in the fact that nouns can be combined in ever-changing new ways that will have to be rendered in English with the help of a clause.

In the opinion of many scholars, language and culture are inextricably interwoven. This view becomes very clear in classes on written translation; as a matter of fact, we have often found that 50 percent or more of a session is used to explore cultural implications. To begin with, there is the rather simple problem of a word in one language that does not have a precise equivalent in another (which, incidentally, does not indicate that the meaning cannot be conveyed in a more circuitous manner). For instance, in various Scandinavian nations, the boat is the main means of transportation. Boats are to them what cars are to us, central in their lives, often used as a symbol in literature. The word "boat," then, in any Scandinavian language, will have to be rendered in English with "boat," yet conveys to a typical midwesterner the concept of leisure and thus is quite removed from the meaning of the original text. Translation requires a special aptitude and interpretive

sensitivity; that is, imagination and intuition not normally required in language learning.

Refinement of two of the four basic skills (reading and writing) is one of the major goals of a course in written translation. Therefore, we devote more than fifty percent of class time to translating from English into the target language. What, then, is the goal of translation from the target language into English? First, students often gain valuable insights into their own language. Second, translating into English adds significantly to the student's ability to deal with translations from English into the target language. Third, we think that translation is more than refinement of skills, more than enhancing language awareness, more than a vehicle to get cultural information across; translation adds to listening and speaking, reading and writing, a fifth (and we hesitate to say "skill") dimension: namely, the capability to connect two languages. This practice results in an interpretive aptitude. What better preparation and training could there be for the study of literature as a work of art? And, of course, the ability to render something said or written in one language into another, conveying the same meaning while striving for similarity in form and tone is of increasing importance in a polyglot world with intensified international trade and cultural exchange.

It should be clear that we refer mainly to the mechanics of written translation in this presentation although at times we approach the topic in general terms that seem to include oral translation. Although by definition related to the two other basic skills, oral translation should have a role similar to that of written translation in the foreign language curriculum. The primary emphasis in oral translation is on development of fluency and improvement of pronunciation. The "fifth dimension" is also present here—but in a different way. Formalistic and aesthetic considerations are not present to the same degree as in written translation; the quality of individual choice is often sacrificed to the need for speed.

Written Translation at the University of Northern Iowa

General considerations have provided the focal point of our discussion to this point. The remaining portions of this paper will be devoted to

the course, "Written Translation," as we have developed and taught it to upper level undergraduate and graduate students at the University of Northern Iowa.

Preliminaries

The prerequisite for enrollment is successful completion of advanced third-year composition. Written translation is designed for a sixteen-week semester, carries three units of credit, and may be repeated once —a factor that has contributed greatly to the course's success. Those students enrolling for the first time are integrated with those repeating it, as are the undergraduates with the graduates. Thus, the beginners learn from course veterans and have a positive example to follow. First-time students, however, need to be assured that they are not competing for grades with the experienced students; they are evaluated on their individual progress, with somewhat less expected of them.

One or two class periods are spent during the first week discussing translation theory. The most important points covered include: (1) the relationship between the original work and its translation in terms of ideas, vocabulary, grammar, and style; (2) the translator's limitations and freedom; and (3) the translatable vs. the untranslatable.

Materials and Timing

Materials for the course include scholarly essays from journals; "how to" articles from magazines and newspapers; light or trivial contributions from social magazines or newspapers; fact- or event-reports, editorials and opinion papers and magazines; and, advertising from magazines and brochures. This list reflects not only the materials used, but also the order in which they are given for translation, ranging from least to most difficult.

Because of their vocabulary, scholarly articles, although often in fields about which most students have little knowledge, are by far the easiest to translate. Translators rarely need to make an interpretation of what the author writes and style is not usually a variable. Translation of scholarly articles, however, does raise a question: Can one effectively translate something about which the tranlator knows nothing? Our practical answer to the question is that we want it included in a translation course so that students can reach conclusions based on experience. "How to" articles, such as recipes and hobby advice, offer some

of the same obstacles as scholarly articles because they often treat topics about which the translator may know very little. This material, nonetheless, many times is accompanied by a text which may be lighthearted in nature. Thus, the translator is faced with some problems of word selection and style adoption. In these articles, particularly in those dealing with recipes, clash of cultures may be a problem. A very big asset in the use of "how to" articles is the practice they give students in the use of the imperative forms of verbs.

Essays of a light or trival nature, such as those which appear in monthly social magaines or in newspapers, have the advantage of often being more interesting to the tranlator, treating a topic about which he may have some knowledge, and giving him an opportunity to build a vocabulary that will have high frequency of usage. Three obstacles are: (1) at times, needing to interpret what is meant by the language of the original; (2) dealing with the variable of style; and (3) encountering more clashes of cultures.

Factual reporting from newspapers and magaines is perhaps the most valuable of all types of material for building a vocabulary of high-frequency usage. In addition the journalistic style can prove difficult for those attempting to use it for the first time.

Editorial writing is the category of material that requires the greatest care in interpretation, hence in word selection. Style can be a very delicate matter, since under- or overstatement can ruin an otherwise sound translation. This type of material demands the highest degree of knowledge of both languages; beginners in the course should work with it only toward the end of the semester.

Advertising, while perhaps the area with the most practical application and "marketability," provides the most difficult translation exercise and should not be taken lightly. Not only does advertising offer linguistic and stylistic challenges, but cultural considerations are unavoidable, as is the psychology of the field of advertising. Again, however, experimenting with this category in a translation course is more valuable than staying away from it for fear of its difficultties.

Procedures

The ideal schedule for a course in written translation that must meet for three hours per week is to convene the class twice each week for

one and one-half hours. Because translation is done in this course both into English from another language and from English into the other language, the two-day plan provides one class period for each of the languages. Also, the one-and-one-half-hour period usually permits the class to finish a project in one session, wheras the fifty- to sixty-minute period of the three-day plan rarely does.

If overlapping scheduling creates problems for students with heavy course loads, the three-day plan is also workable. On this plan, three projects are done in two-week cycles. In the first cycle, Project I (e.g., English to Spanish) is begun on Monday of the first week. If it is not finished on that day, twenty to thirty minutes on Wednesday are used for its completion. This practice then allows between twenty and sixty minutes on Wednesday for final discussion of Project I. On Friday of the first week, Project II (e.g., Spanish to English) is begun, and Monday of the second week is reserved for completion and discussion of it. Project III (e.g., English to Spanish) is begun on the second Wednesday and is completed and discussed on the second Friday. The following Monday is devoted to reviewing and analyzing the problems encountered in the first cycle. On Wednesday of the third week, a new cycle is initiated. Postponement of a new cycle can take place any time for the purpose of testing or of continued analysis of the preceding one.

The length of the projects increases as the semester progresses. At the beginning, the usual length is between 200 and 300 words—a total that will double by the end of the semester. This does not mean that only short selections may be used. Rather, only an excerpt of a selection will be required for translation. Limiting the length at the beginning has two reasons. First, it facilitates covering the material in the sixty to ninety minutes of time allotted for each project. As students learn to operate efficiently within the time structure, the length of the project can be increased. Second, students who cannot do a good job on a short assignment will only multiply their problems on a long one; thus, they become frustrated and lose confidence. We do insist, however, that students read all assigned selections in their entirety, even though only a short excerpt may be required for translation.

The same project is assigned to the entire class for translation. Comparison and discussion of an individual's translation is then carried

out in small groups of four to six students each. The purpose of the small groups is threefold: (1) less time is needed to cover the material in a group of four to six than in one large group of fifteen to twenty-five; (2) each individual can and must be heard from during the hour, a practice the large-group structure does not ensure; and, (3) the small-group atmosphere can help the individual student to gain confidence, since it is generally easier to demonstrate one's work and receive and give criticism in the smaller, more congenial setting.

Comparing translations consists of all students in the group taking turns reading two or three sentences from the material being translated, their translation of those same sentences, and then giving the other members of the group the opportunity to read their versions of the same portion or to comment on what they hear. A brief discussion usually ensues as to what versions are preferred and why.

Beginning students tend to be hypercritical and to read different versions which, in the final analysis, differ only slightly from others and are a matter of personal preference. The instructor's task is to keep this practice to a minimum. For the sake of time economy, he or she must continually ask students to cite only substantial differences.

As alternative translations of selections are read and discussed, students are expected to make note of points they wish to consider. By the class period after a project is completed, each student is to do whatever revision seems necessary and to hand in both the first and revised versions. This gives them the opportunity to weigh and incorporate the desired alternatives. Requiring that both versions be turned in allows the instructor to evaluate how much of the translation was initially conceived by the student and the degree of influence exercised by the group.

When each group completes its comparison of translations of a project, it will spend whatever time it has on the second day reviewing the specific problems that arose with the translation. The following class day, the groups are brought together and each presents its list of problems for the class to hear and discuss. The role of the instructor is to moderate the discussion and, at the end, add observations and conclusions. These discussions may focus on specific words or points of grammar in the selection or may be more general, such as treating style, authorial tone, cultural clashes, and others.

Three or four times during the semester, it may be desirable to give the students a selection they have never seen and ask them, with the aid of dictionaries, to do a spontaneous translation. A class discussion of the problems encountered should follow.

In addition to the translations done by the entire class, each student is required to submit two individually chosen, instructor-approved projects. These are to be prepared outside of class and turned in during the final month of the semester. One individual project is to be translated into English, the other into the target language. Both the rough draft and the final version together with the original must be submitted. Requiring both versions gives the instructor some assurance that the student has worked alone during at least part of the process.

Testing in this course is a debatable matter. Whether to test formally at all and the type of test to be used depend on the level of student for which the course is designed and on the instructor's objecjectives. When offered on the high school level, the objectives of the course might be enriching vocabulary and refining use of grammar. If such is the case, testing can be objective. Vocabulary "inventories" can be taken casually after one or two projects are completed. Instructors can employ a game setting whereby the students prepare lists of words they have learned in the projects and go around their group asking peers to use those same words in complete sentences.

Sometimes in high school, but more commonly in college, especially at an advenced level, enriching vocabulary and refining use of grammar are objectives that are taken for granted. Explicit course objectives relate to the student's ability to gain increasingly more insight into the synthetic-creative process of translation and to become ultimately a relatively proficient translator. One method of testing that has proven successful is to give the students one of the selections they translated three to four weeks earlier. This time, however, they may not use dictionaries but can only rely on what they have learned from their previous work and from discussions of it.

The criteria for final evaluation in the course must take into account whether the student is enrolled for the first or second time. More expectation is placed on the "veteran." The instructor must weigh the individual's progress from the beginning to the end. He must judge what the student offers as translation. But he also considers what the

student contributes to the discussion and the grasp he or she has of concepts and problems regarding the theory of translation. This latter point may be less important in a skills-oriented high school setting, but very important in college as it relates directly to the widening of intellectual horizons.

Tangential Questions

After looking at the practical aspects of the course, we would like to consider several questions that arise nearly every time we teach it.

1. *Can texts in a subject area the translator knows nothing about be translated properly?* Yes, at least to a certain degree. Although translators may know nothing about engineering, they can render properly a description of a certain machine, provided they familiarize themselves with some of the key technical expressions; this applies to most areas of science, although consultation with someone knowledgeable in a given field is advisable. Texts in the humanities, especially in philosophy and theology, usually deal with very involved conceptualization and are thus more demanding.

2. *Are there "untranslatable" texts?* Yes, especially in cases of heavy cultural interference. In a recent semester, for example, students were asked to translate an article from English to Spanish which discussed Elizabeth Kübler-Ross' book, *On Death and Dying*. The expression "terminally ill" proved untranslatable in direct words. The idea, however, could be rendered as *el que va morir* (he who is going to die). Here, culture seems to be the issue: Spanish-speaking people apparently have less tendency to be euphemistic about death than we do. "Untranslatable" does not imply that meaning cannot be given; it merely indicates that meaning cannot be directly conveyed without adding footnotes or explanatory sentences and clauses.

3. *What is the relationship between original and translation, or how far could or should the translation be removed from the original?* New students in the translation course will invariably ask this basic question during the first class session. The answer is fairly simple: the translation should convey the meaning of the original, preserving as much of its complexity and as many of its nuances as possible. The translation should also strive to attain an approximation of the style, imagery, idioms, etc., of the original. However, form is secondary and, generally,

aspects of meaning should not be sacrificed for formal considerations. Furthermore, the quality of language and style should be such that the work of the translator can stand on its own merits.

4. *Do all texts "lose" in translation?* Another popular first-hour question, we must admit that most translations, even very good ones, do indeed lose some nuances, some aspects of the original in meaning and, especially, in form. What most people seem to forget, however, is that the translator often adds nuances and aspects of his own. The outcome is quite often that a translation can be more lucid and cohesive than the original. Examples abound, especially in literary translation, where translations are considered stylistically better than originals. The Schlegel-Tieck German translation of Shakespeare comes to mind, as do some translations into English of the Norwegian playwright, Henrik Ibsen.

5. *Are translations by groups of people or translations as teamwork possible?* Yes. The St. James version of the *Bible* is proof. Translations of very lengthy texts are often done by groups. Usually each person is assigned a specific part. The problem is obvious: there will most likely be some inconsistency in style and modes of expression. Teamwork is most often meaningful when one member of the team has a good command of the language of the original, and another, of the target language. In our experience, though, the best and most consistent translations usually are made by one individual.

6. *How does one choose and distrbiute text materials to students without infringing on the new version of the copyright law?* Many teachers ask this question. We wrestle with it every semester and have now arrived at the obvious conclusion: we need a collection of translatable materials in English and the three major foreign languages in the U.S.: French, German, and Spanish. We are now in the process of compiling such a text and hope to have it ready within a year or so.

Conclusion

A course in written translation in college and some introductory work in this area on the high school level should definitely be included in the postintermediate curriculum. On the elementary or intermediate level, translation is indeed a "step back"; if taught systematically and well on the postintermediate level, it can be a "giant step forward."